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HERBERT HOOVER has done another great public service in his frank denunciation of the toleration by the Allies of the Archduke Joseph as the head of Hungary. He declared that "the Archduke's resignation can be forced within five days if the Supreme Council takes a firm stand, but that bloodshed will result if such action is postponed." Then he said something which we wish might be read by every American: "It is beyond the endurance of any red-blooded American to see his Government tolerate the restoration of the Hapsburgs, as the United States entered the war to banish from the world that for which the Hapsburgs and the Hohenzollerns stood." Bravo, Mr. Hoover! But be warned that if you talk much like that you will begin to upset the whole kettle of fish and endanger the peace treaty itself. If only Mr. Hoover's example should be followed, if our officials who were and are in Europe should begin to say publicly what they say privately and in confidence, the American people would begin to understand how terrible has been the failure at Paris, and would realize the indefensibility of the whole plan worked out there for the domination of the world by the same handful of militarists and imperialists who have been responsible for the policy adopted toward Hungary and Russia.

SO far from there being an end to preparedness for slaughter, observe how gruesomely armaments are being heaped upon armaments as the fruit of the Holy War that was to end war and as an accompaniment to the new concert of the Powers. The American establishment is to be greater than before the war, the dreams of the war-tool makers having been fulfilled manifold. In Italy and France, where, before, each peasant woman carried a soldier on her back and a future soldier at her breast, her burden must now be increased so that the world may be made safe for the annexations and the mandatories and the international usurers. No plan for the reduction of armaments below the pre-war standards has been formulated. On the contrary, the suppression of Tunis (the Belgium of France) and of Tripoli (the Serbia of Italy), the forced administration of Asia Minor, and the imposition of exterior governments upon Russia are now to serve the munition-makers of Latin Europe as an excuse for a preparedness which disarmed Germany can no longer offer. Out of the economies which would accrue to the Germans from their enforced relief from armaments, the new Holy Alliance can thus draw indemnity funds for arming to the teeth against a day of future reckoning among themselves. Britain, whose wonderful adaptiveness was exemplified by her navigation of the bombing Zeppelin, R-34, across the Atlantic, is spending $350,000,000 for military air-craft this year. France is spending $270,000,000 on air armament, also as a fitting accompaniment to the League of Nations. Scarcely need the Nobels, Du Ponts, Vickers, Creusots, and Remingtons be downhearted. A peace of reconstruction and a league of democracies, based upon mutual disarmament, might have confounded the war-makers and saved the world. Soon a tribunal is to sit in Europe to place the blame for making the war. An easier task for a tribunal would be to find the four old men who have invented the next war and the twenty-three wars now current.

THERE seems to be a marked difference of opinion as to the final honors of authorship of the covenant of the League of Nations. Mr. Wilson told the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations that he made a draft originally and that when he got to Paris he superimposed upon it certain features from General Smuts's plan which appealed to him. Then there were other changes, but he gave the distinct impression that he was really responsible for much of the phraseology. But on August 12 Mr. David Hunter Miller testified before the same committee that the work was a composite plan based upon all the plans submitted by America, England, France, and Italy, and that the final draft was written by Mr. Miller himself and Mr. S. J. B. Hurst, a legal adviser to the British Foreign Office. As he has not been contradicted, the world can perhaps assume, then, that in its final form the draft of the sacred covenant which must not be touched is the result of the joint wisdom

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of Messrs. Hurst and Miller. Who is Mr. Miller, to whom such a tremendous responsibility was entrusted? His chief claim to distinction is the fact that he is the law-partner of the son-in-law of Colonel House. As he does not appear in the American "Who's Who," and as *The Nation*, in its fifty-four years, had never heard of him prior to his assignment to the Peace Commission in conjunction with Colonel House's brother-in-law and Colonel House's son-in-law, we are unable to give our readers any further information about him. This is regrettable, because if the final draft of the League is worth one-half what its advocates claim for it, America should be preparing to erect a monument to David Hunter Miller.

THOSE rare persons who prefer light rather than heat in the discussion of Russian affairs will be grateful for Mr. R. M. Story's unpretending "Observations on Soviet Russia," printed in the August number of *The American Political Science Review*. Mr. Story, who represented the Young Men's Christian Association in Russia and Siberia during 1917 and 1918, is inclined to explain the phenomenal rise of the soviet and the fall of the mir and the zemstvo in terms of the economic and social, rather than political, character of the Revolution. He declares that "there is far more smoke than fire in the protests over the suppression of the constituent assembly and the exclusion of the bourgeois element from the soviets. . . . Despite executive usurpation, legislative perversion, and the substitution of inquisition and terrorism for judical procedure, the soviet has continued in the affections of the masses. On the other hand, the weaknesses of soviet government have been overshadowed by its importance as the defender of the revolution." "In order to gain time and the appearance of unity, the ruthless suppression of minorities and every immorality known to statecraft has been employed." Yet despite present Bolshevist domination of the soviet, Mr. Story thinks it "not improbable that the Bolshevik party has greater reason to fear its removal from power through the soviets than through outside agencies"; for "there is and can be no assured tenure of party control so long as the soviet as an institution continues to function." There has always seemed to us a singular lack of scientific curiosity on the part of those numerous political scientists who, instead of studying this new and interesting institution to see whether or why it was succeeding or failing, have devoted their talents to misrepresenting and trying to destroy it offhand. Mr. Story's interesting article confirms our faith in observation.

TWO details of the week's news will not escape the attention of those who seek to look below the surface of things. An inconspicuous item sent from Rome states that "the Rome newspapers assert that Great Britain has agreed to defer the payment by Italy of interest on Italy's debt to Great Britain," amounting to about a half-billion lire annually, while a special dispatch to *The Public Ledger* (Philadelphia) informs us in detail of the mutiny at Southampton of three hundred volunteers about to be shipped to France. The men absolutely refused to embark, on the ground that their ultimate destination was the Black Sea and that they would not fight the Russians. The Government, we are told, "will deal firmly with the matter." The alleged Italian default may of course simply be connected with an effort to bolster Italian exchange in England, but it may have a far more serious significance. If the powers of financial imperialism that have so long ruled every country in the world have indeed reached the point where, on the one hand, even the debtor governments cannot or will not pay their claims, and where, on the other, the people refuse to be coaxed or bullied or coerced into fighting for the enforcement of their claims, then it is high time for them to begin to think in terms of a new situation. The problem of the war debts has got to be faced squarely and fearlessly.

THE details of the great Japanese shipping merger, which was completed at the beginning of July, have recently been published here. The armistice caught the Japanese shipbuilding companies with a large amount of uncompleted tonnage, and the sharp break in ship values threatened them with heavy losses. The merger grew out of their efforts to avoid such losses. The Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, as the new company is called, is capitalized at 100,000,000 yen, and it takes over 500,000 tons of shipping, a full fifth of Japan's merchant fleet. It thus ranks with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Toyo Kisen Kaisha, and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Big Three of the Japanese shipping world. Unlike these companies, however, the new concern will operate no regular lines, but will charter its vessels to other operators. It is thus in reality a merger of tramp tonnage, a sort of ship-holding company. The Government is helping in the financing, which has been put into the hands of a strong banking group, and it is already reported that the Nippon Yusen Kaisha will establish close relations with the new company. The net result should be to strengthen materially the maritime position of Japan, which now occupies fourth place among the great shipping states. All the implications of the readiness of present-day governments to lend their support to important industrial interests need to be clearly understood.

WITH shame and profound concern we record the disgraceful assault made upon Mr. John R. Shillady, secretary of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, in Austin, Texas, on August 22. Mr. Shillady, who is a well-known and respected citizen of New York, went to Austin on receipt of word from the local branch of the Association saying that their officers had been haled before the county court, the adjutant general, and the commander of the State Rangers, and that the right of the Association to do business in Texas was questioned. During his two-day stay Mr. Shillady conferred with a committee of the local branch, called at the offices of the attorney general and the adjutant general, testified at a court of secret inquiry held by a justice of the peace and the county attorney, and made an unsuccessful attempt to see the Governor. He was set upon in the middle of the day in the main part of the town by a group of six or eight men, including, according to his statement, the county judge and a constable, and after being severely beaten, was ordered to leave town at once. A telegram of inquiry addressed by the National Association to Governor Hobby met with the following reply from that official:

> Shillady was the only offender in connection with the matter referred to in your telegram, and he was punished before your inquiry came. Your organization can contribute more to the advancement of both races by keeping your representatives and their propaganda out of this State than in any other way.

It is hard to believe that a man of Mr. Shillady's standing cannot safely visit the city of Austin upon a perfectly

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legal errand, or that the Governor of Texas will thus tacitly approve lawlessness and violence. It is time for a profound searching of heart by the people of the Lone Star State.

THERE seem to be no limits to the rage for straitjackets and exclusions. The National Security League is pushing its campaign for "Americanization" (we all know what that means at the hands of the Security League); and Representative Johnson, of Washington, Chairman of the House Committee on Immigration, is the latest politician to seek favor with exclusionists by introducing an anti-immigration bill. This precious measure would prohibit for two years all immigration except that of certain specified classes, and even members of those groups might remain only six months. After the two-year period of entire prohibition has elapsed, aliens who come in contemplating permanent residence must state at the port of entry their intention to become citizens, must learn the English language, must register yearly with the county clerk, must take out first papers within three years, and must be naturalized within eight years—all under penalty of deportation. A provision for the issue to citizens of contiguous territory of annual cards permitting temporary residence is doubtless intended to provide for the admission of the Mexican labor which many of the people of our Western States are so eager to exploit. The bill is aimed at the Japanese, but it is a blunderbuss that will scatter all over the lot. In any case, if our Security Leagues and Representative Johnsons get their way, they need not trouble to pass any exclusion laws; they will make this country so undesirable that no one will want to come here, anyway, except as one visits a museum of curiosities. But we have too much faith in the commonsense and humor of the American people to believe that these gentlemen can for long get their way.

WAGES have risen so rapidly during the war that some observers have been inclined to regard labor as the chief beneficiary of present inflated prices. Figures just made public by the New York State Industrial Commission disclose the fallacy of this view. From June, 1914, to June, 1919, average weekly earnings in the factories of the State rose by 77 per cent., while retail food prices increased by 86 per cent. Recent figures of the Bureau of Statistics of the United States Department of Labor put the increase in the cost of living, including not only food, but clothing, rent, and all other items of expenditure, at 80 per cent. from December, 1914, to June, 1919. Whatever may be true of specially favored groups of workers, labor as a whole has not been growing rich by reason of the advance in wages. In any period of rising prices, the first person to benefit is the active business man who has something to sell—the trader, the manufacturer, the farmer. Labor is likely to suffer from high prices before it gains through increased wages, while the unhappy receivers of statutory or customary salaries and of fixed incomes not uncommonly are permanently injured. This is just what has been happening during the past five years of business and currency inflation and madly jumping prices. The results appear in the income-tax returns, which show each year a fresh crop of millionaires and a multiplying number of tax-payers in the lower groups. The consequences are also apparent in the national bank deposits, which at the latest return reached the unprecedented figure of $15,924,865,000, and in land prices as well. In some parts of the Mississippi Valley the high prices of farm produce are now being capitalized into land values at the rate of from $200 to $500 an acre. Under such conditions it is useless to expect labor to refrain from demanding either lower prices or higher pay. The high cost of living affords something more than a pretext for the strikes from which industry suffers.

MEANWHILE we trust that the efforts of Congressional orators, the work of the Department of Justice, and the activities of State commissions, mayors' committees, newspaper economists, and volunteer organizations of all kinds may not be unduly effective in lowering prices by the cheap and easy method of forcing "hoarded" goods on the market. Doubtless the devotee of "ham and" is stirred to wrath against the profiteer by the knowledge that the warehouses of New York contain 557,353,080 eggs, for example, according to a recent veracious and exact report made to the Mayor. But it must be borne in mind that the perverse American hen, despite all investigations and threats of prosecution, still refuses to lay as many eggs in December as in March; and if the city flat-dweller will not store the spring surplus in his own cellar against the lean months, he must perhaps depend on the warehouses to do it for him. We do not mean to defend this Bolshevistic sabotage on the part of the hen, or to imply that the Josephs of our granaries are beyond the desire to turn an honest penny. But it will be unfortunate if the public mind is diverted by spectacular seizures of stored food and prosecution of profiteers from thoughtful consideration of what is wrong with our present system of producing and marketing food. It is quite clear that wheat grown on $500 land cannot be cheap wheat, just as it is clear that, so long as the necessary function of storing and marketing food is performed by private concerns for their own profit, they will make profits when they can. But the evils of the present system are not going to be corrected simply by raising a hue and cry against profiteers or by prosecuting an occasional individual. Intelligent action depends on intelligent economic analysis; of that we have too little.

IN this connection it seems to us odd that the orthodox economists of the day never allude to Ruskin. We would not for a moment imply that his writings have had any effect upon theirs, nor upon the public for which they write; but it is at least a curious coincidence that many of their ideas—and those among the most striking and fruitful—were anticipated by him sixty years ago. Take his famous sentence, "There is no wealth but life." Take what he has to say of the influence of environment and contentment upon the productivity of the worker. Take his protests against the iniquity of "cheapness." Take even his too unqualified but essentially sound doctrine of "intrinsic value," as applied, for example, to works of art. These are all commonplaces now, and some of them are receiving practical application. Yet his relation to them is studiously ignored. Is this neglect of his economic and sociological prescience—we will not say services—due to the mystical or prophetic jargon in which he sometimes couched it, or to the economists' resentment at the intrusion of a mere man of letters into a field over which they claim the right of eminent domain? But jargon for jargon, is his so much less intelligible than theirs? Certainly not to the layman. His centennial year is an excellent time to bring up some of the arrears of our debt of acknowledgment to Ruskin.

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The Innocent Abroad

IS it the truth—this confession of unpardonable innocence and ignorance? This is the unpleasant question forced upon the reader of the report of President Wilson's interview with the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. The question springs into the mind unwillingly: How is it possible to conceive that the President of the United States knew nothing of the secret treaties before he went to Paris, and that he has not yet seen the text of them? Dr. E. T. Williams, one of the American experts on Far Eastern affairs, reports the President as having said on April 22, 1919, "that the war seemed to have been fought to establish the sanctity of treaties, and while some of them were unconscionable, it looked as though it would be necessary to recognize them." Thus the war for democracy and permanent peace, the war for the Fourteen Points, has turned out to be in part a war for the recognition of the secret treaties. But at the interview the President of the United States more than once solemnly declared that he knew nothing at all, either officially or unofficially, of the secret treaties until he went to Paris.

Senator Borah. I should like to know when the first knowledge came to this Government with reference to the secret treaties between Japan, Great Britain, Italy, and France concerning the German possessions in Shantung?

The President. I thought that Secretary Lansing had looked that up and told you. I can only reply from my own knowledge, and my own knowledge came after I reached Paris.

Senator Borah. . . . When did the secret treaty between Great Britain, France, and the other nations of Europe in reference to certain adjustments in Europe first come to your knowledge? Was that after you had reached Paris also?

The President. Yes, sir. The whole series of understandings were disclosed to me for the first time then.

Senator Borah. Then we had no knowledge of these secret treaties, so far as our Government was concerned, until you reached Paris?

The President. Not unless there was information at the State Department of which I knew nothing.

Senator Johnson. Was the United States Government officially informed at any time between the rupture of diplomatic relations with Germany and the signing of the armistice of agreements made by the Allied Governments in regard to the settlement of the war?

The President. No; not so far as I know.

Senator Johnson. So far as you are aware, was it unofficially informed during that period?

The President. I would be more clear in my answer, Senator, if I knew what you were referring to.

Senator Johnson. I am referring to the so-called secret treaties which disposed of territory among belligerents.

The President. You mean like the Treaty of London?

Senator Johnson. Yes, like the London pact.

The President. No, no, sir.

Senator Johnson. Could you state whether or not any official investigation was made by our Government to ascertain whether or not there were any such treaties of territorial disposition?

The President. There was no such investigation.

Senator Johnson. These specific treaties, then—the Treaty of London, on the basis of which Italy entered the war; the agreement with Rumania, in August, 1916; the various agreements in respect to Asia Minor; and the agreements consummated in the winter of 1917 between France and Russia relative to the frontiers of Germany, particularly in relation to the Saar Valley and the left bank of the Rhine—of none of these did we have (and when I say "we" I mean you, Mr. President) any knowledge prior to the conference at Paris?

The President. No, sir. I can confidently answer that question no, in regard to myself.

Senator Johnson. When our Government, through you, Mr. President, in January, 1918, made the Fourteen Points as the basis for peace, were those points made with the knowledge of the existence of the secret agreements?

The President. No. Oh, no.

What can we do but shake our heads in perplexity over these astounding confessions of ignorance on the part of the statesman who more than any other discussed the aims of the war and the bases of the peace, and in whose hands lay for a time the destiny of the world? Was the statement made by Mr. Balfour in the Commons on March 4, 1918, that "President Wilson is kept informed" as to the Allies' treaties, a falsehood? Can it be that the President never heard of the publication by the Soviet Government of the secret treaties in November of 1917? Almost all of these appeared in *The Manchester Guardian* at the end of 1917 and early in 1918, and many of them were published by *The Evening Post* (New York) early in 1918. Can it be that the President is unaware of the fact that one of the main causes of the fall of the Kerensky Government in Russia was the refusal of the Allies to revise certain of the secret treaties? Can it be that he never heard of the revelations made in the German Reichstag by Chancellor Michaelis in July, 1917, concerning the secret agreement between France and Russia as to the Saar Valley and the eastern frontiers of Germany? Can it be that he does not know that two successive French ministers of foreign affairs, Ribot and Barthou, and a French Cabinet, that of Painlevé, fell primarily because of the confusion in French war aims and peace terms, brought about in large measure by the secret treaties? Can it be that he was ignorant of the price exacted by Rome for entering the war, when every chancellery in Europe had the terms, which were also published in the summer of 1917 in *The New Europe*, for example? Can it be that he knew nothing of the vigorous discussion in the Italian Parliament and press in the summer of 1917 concerning the Pact of London, and did not know that this discussion was instrumental in the overthrow of the Boselli-Sonnino Government? Can it be that the President of the United States knew nothing about the secret pact with Italy, made at London on April 27, 1915, when hardly two weeks later, on May 10, 1915, Sir Arthur Evans, in a letter to *The Manchester Guardian*, gave an outline of the Italian demands? That the secret treaty was public property for those who had eyes to see may be seen from the article by A. H. E. Taylor in *The British Review* for September, 1915, and in later issues of *The Near East*; from articles by Mr. Seton Watson in *The English Review* for February, 1916, and in *The New Europe;* from Taylor's book, "The Future of the Southern Slavs" (American edition by Dodd, Mead), published early in 1917, pages 161 and following, where a full discussion of the whole treaty is given. What must have been the astonishment and cynical relief of the waiting Premiers and foreign ministers of the Big Four to have met with such ignorance and innocence in the Crusader who had come out of the West!

"Unless there was information at the State Department

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of which I knew nothing." Did the State Department know? Did the "Colonel House Commission," of which Dr. Mezes was chairman, know? Where, indeed, does the President get his information? Who serves him his facts? Who forms his judgments for him, and in what manner? The President of the United States has a thousand and one things of importance to consider each day, and he must rely upon trusted subordinates. Who have they been? What kind of secret diplomacy has prevailed at the State Department, or in other governmental quarters, to keep the President safe and immune from all concrete knowledge and to permit him full scope for abstract speculation? Before this interview the people may well have been under the spell of the old myth, constantly repeated with awe by the knowing, that the President has sources of information of which we common folk know nothing. But can the country now have any confidence whatever that the judgment of the President is based upon information and not upon some mysterious political intuition? Concerning his Russian policy, for example, is the rumor true that stacks of Russian documents have been heaping up at the State Department without being opened and prepared for use? Who has formulated this policy for the President in all its pathetic vagaries, and upon what information is it all based?

But after the President got to Paris and was surprised (and doubtless pained) by the disconcerting discovery of the secret treaties, did he ask to see the text of these documents? No, he did not deign to look at the actual texts the whole time he was there. He found that virtuous Britain and France "were bound by them, but . . . they were quite willing, and indeed I think desirous, that they should be reconsidered with the consent of the other parties"; among the other parties being Japan, Italy, Rumania, and Greece. But the "other parties" being stubborn, what could poor Britain and France do? They were "bound in honor"; and "the necessity of unanimous decision" compelled the President to give way—Fourteen Points, armistice agreement, war addresses, and all notwithstanding. What was the need under such circumstances of examining the text of the secret agreements?

Senator Moses. Were all these treaties then produced, Mr. President?

The President. Oh, yes.

Senator Moses. Did that include the secret arrangement [with Italy] with reference to Avlona?

The President. If it did, I did not see it. I cannot say confidently that the terms were laid before us. . . . I did not see that agreement in written terms.

Senator Moses. Then they were not produced in textual form?

The President. I do not know. They may have been, and I may not have picked them up in the great mass of papers before me.

If he did not care to see the text of the secret treaties, perhaps he does not know, either, that the boundaries were fixed in the armistice agreements, line for line, almost, as they were copied from these secret treaties. Without having seen the text of the secret treaty how could he have written or signed the Fiume statement expressing perfect satisfaction with the "strategic" theft of Tyrolean territory? His contempt for concrete facts puts him beyond any knowledge as to "whether France has special military agreements with Poland and Czecho-Slovakia," when all the world knows that French officers are drilling the armies of these new republics. And all the world knows that Germany's African possessions have been disposed of among Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Italy (with Portugal left out in the cold), and yet the President answers Senator Fall that he is not cognizant of any such arrangements.

When explaining the actual meaning of Article X as to the preservation of "territorial integrity," the President's innocence forsook him and he made an ominous observation. He contends that without Article X the territorial integrity and political independence of the little nations will not be preserved, yet in almost the same breath he threatens every small nation with a violation of its territorial integrity and political independence, in just the same way and under just the same kind of pretext as before, but with the added sanction of the League of Nations. He says:

I understand that Article X means that no nation is at liberty to invade the territorial integrity of another. *That does not mean to invade for purposes of warfare*, but to impair the territorial integrity of another nation. *Its territorial integrity is not destroyed by armed intervention;* it is destroyed by retention, by taking territory away from it: that impairs its territorial integrity.

"Armed intervention" is, of course, but another name for an attack upon a little nation by a bigger one. Article X, for example, does not prevent the United States from "armed intervention" in Mexico. Only if the United States were to retain Mexican territory, or take territory away from Mexico, would Article X recognize a violation of Mexico's "territorial integrity." Senator Brandegee asked, to be sure: "Suppose the external aggressor, having gotten within the territory of the aggressee, stays there?" and the President answered, "Then that impairs the territorial integrity." But when England went into Egypt in 1882, it was under the distinct stipulation that she would not stay there; and for all we know, despite the new English protectorate, there are those English statesmen who still maintain that she will not stay—forever. Senator New pointed out that "England has occupied Malta for something like a century, I believe, under a very similar promise." When we go into Mexico, we shall inform the League of Nations that we do not expect to stay there permanently, but merely until "law and order" are reëstablished. But no time limit to such a process can be set; and meantime for a generation we can exploit the oil wells and the mineral resources; and our children can be trusted to care for the rest of it.

The President objects to authoritative reservations because, he says, there is no need for them. Everything was perfectly clear and understood in the various commissions at Paris as to the "moral obligation" of the United States under the Covenant: "I am confident that that was the view. That view was not formulated, you understand, but I am confident that that was the view." As to the agreement reserving for the United States the Pacific Island of Yap for a cable and naval station: "No, it was not a formally signed protocol, but we had a prolonged and interesting discussion on the subject, and nobody had any doubt as to what was agreed upon." But another objection to authoritative reservations is that "our example would immediately be followed in many quarters, in some instances with very serious reservations." In other words, other nations would tell publicly what their understanding is of every equivocal word and provision of the treaty, now sadly unclear. But the President objects, finally, because he "could only with the greatest reluctance" approach the German Assembly at Weimar for its assent—as though Germany also were not entitled to know what the treaty really means. Senator Fall

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questioned the necessity of submitting reservations to Germany, because Germany was not a member of the League. But the President was insistent upon the correctness of his own view.

Senator Fall. Well, Mr. President, of course it is not my purpose to enter into an argument, but we are here for information. There are provisions for the amendment of the articles. Germany is out of the League. Any amendment proposed by the other members of the League prior to her coming into the League would not be submitted to her, would it, she not being a member?

The President. I will admit that that point had not occurred to me; no, she would not.

As for *The Nation*, our attitude has been that the technical difficulties and weaknesses of the League Covenant would be of secondary importance, provided the German treaty, and the others as well (so far as their outlines are published), were not so iniquitous. The League guarantees the wickedness, the injustices, the incipient wars contained in these treaties. By what magic can the League, however perfected its machinery, atone for them? This is not, unfortunately, the attitude of the Senate opposition. Their opposition is for the most part to the League; they apparently approve of the German treaty. Nevertheless, we are in accord with them chiefly because, through their opposition to the League, there is the chance of defeating the treaties themselves, and of making a beginning at once in the establishment of reasonable and friendly relations among the nations.

It is with the more satisfaction, therefore, that we greet the frank admission of the President that in the Shantung question "the decision ultimately reached at the Peace Conference was a disappointment." We welcome the amendment to the treaty proposed by the Senate Committee substituting China for Japan, as an act of justice and of decency, despite the dangerous situation it creates with Japan. We grant that Japan is merely improving upon the imperialist lessons she has learned from the masters of imperialism—from Great Britain, France, Italy, the old Russia, the old Germany. We sympathize fully, too, with the Japanese in "their poignant regret at the failure of the Commission" on the League at Paris to insert "in the preamble of the Covenant a phrase endorsing the principle of equality of nations and the just treatment of their nationals." Japan made two demands of the Peace Conference: one the assertion of the principle of the equality of nations, and the other the transfer of the Shantung rights. It is characteristic of the Conference that the second was granted her by the vote of the American President, and that the first was refused her by the action of that same President as chairman of the Commission on the League of Nations, "though it [the racial equality proposal] obtained a clear majority" of votes in the Commission. Yet this does not prevent us from expressing our satisfaction that the wrong done China is now to be debated in the Senate as an amendment to the treaty. It is our conviction that only simple honesty can now save the world. Let Japan say to her Allies: We will give up Shantung to China, provided you give up your own Chinese possessions, and disgorge some of the loot you have acquired in other parts of the world; and provided, too, that the sham League of Nations take its courage in its hands and recognize explicitly the principle of equality of nations. This, we fear, is a counsel of perfection. But in this welter and chaos of evil, simple honesty must remain our guiding star.

The interview with the President was the first glimmer we have had of "open covenants of peace openly arrived at." The President justified thus the creation of the Council of Four at Paris with its secret deliberations: "The reason we constituted that very small conference was that we could speak with the utmost absence of restraint, and I think it would be a mistake to make use of those discussions outside." Perhaps if "that very small conference" had not been constituted, they might not have taken such advantage of the President's ignorance and innocence. Of one of the Senators, the President asked: "Do you think I ought to re-debate here the fundamental questions that we debated at Paris? I think that would be a mistake, sir." Yes, we think that these fundamental questions must be re-debated, and that it would be a mistake not to do so. If this re-debate can now be achieved, the President's interview with the Senators—sad, sorry, pitiful spectacle that it was—may at last call forth an expression of the real mind and the real conscience of America.

A Frightened Premier

"THE Government have done their best to give direction. Let all who will man the boats and save the nation." Thus does Great Britain's Prime Minister, faced with the appalling legacy of the war and the inadequacy of his own Government to handle it, appeal for united action by his countrymen to accomplish the task of reconstruction. The speech is the speech of a politician, not an economist. There is, to be sure, no word of Ireland, and none of Russia. The Premier says little of the peace and its terms; he would fain have his hearers forget the wild indemnity promises of the election campaign. He does lip service to disarmament, saying with truth that it is essential to anything but a sham league of nations, and to Great Britain's economic salvation as well. But the body of his address is devoted to the humdrum question of how the people are to make a living in the little island at the gate of the seas. Though it is an economic question, Mr. Lloyd George deals with it essentially as a politician. Adequate policies he has none; yet he can no longer ignore certain disagreeable facts, and so he at last looks them in the face. His example is to be commended to high-placed politicians on this side of the water.

The war, according to the Premier, cost Great Britain £40,000,000,000, and left a national debt of £7,800,000,000, besides an annual pension roll of £100,000,000. Of the £4,000,000,000 worth of foreign securities held in Britain when the war broke out, the financial strain of the conflict compelled the selling of a fourth, and the borrowing, besides, of £1,200,000,000 in the United States and Canada. How large a part of the £1,800,000,000 advanced by the British to their Continental allies will ever be recovered is, as we long ago indicated, problematical. Estimated government expenditure for the current year is £1,435,000,000, a full forty per cent. of the national income as figured by Edward Crammond. Public and private extravagance is rampant, as always in the wake of war; production in some important lines, notably coal, has been decreasing alarmingly; the feeling between employer and employee is exacerbated to a degree wellnigh unprecedented. Small wonder that Great Britain's leading politician warns his countrymen of impending ruin.

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Yet his words are only those of a political opportunist. An economist would not simply point to last year's adverse trade balance of £800,000,000,000, contrast it with a pre-war normal of about one-sixth that amount, and then exclaim tragically, "We must bridge the chasm, or at the bottom of it is ruin." Instead, he would indicate that prices have more than doubled since 1914 (largely by reason of bad financing), and that eight hundred millions today mean less than half that amount meant before the war. He would point out that despite the almost insuperable difficulties in the way of trade at present, the first six months of this year, as compared with the corresponding period of 1918, showed a reduction of the unfavorable balance at the rate of £123,000,000,000 a year—a surprisingly good beginning. Comparing the same six-months periods, he would show that out of an increase of £65,000,000 in imports, no less than £51,000,000 represent the raw materials demanded by Britain's on-marching industries; that British exports, on the other hand, rose by £88,000,000; and that re-exports, representing the highly important entrepôt trade, jumped from £17,000,000 to £55,000,000—230 per cent. Instead of indicating stark ruin, trade figures easily available to the Prime Minister show that despite all difficulties the trade whereby Britain lives is rapidly righting itself, and give promise that it will quickly make all the necessary readjustments if only the Government will leave commerce free, and will devote its own efforts intelligently to a solution of the land and labor problems.

But this is precisely what Mr. Lloyd George will not and can not do. His Government has from the beginning been toying with protection and preference. The Premier, hough without throwing off his disguises, now casts in his lot with the restrictionists. He announces, indeed, that the embargo on imports, except under license, will be lifted on September 1; but adds innocently that the adverse American exchange rate is in itself a protection against the importation of manufactured goods. The collapse of sterling exchange to $4.1275 was not needed to lend point to this remark. British protectionists may well laugh in their sleeve as they view the situation. Further, Mr. Lloyd George announces that the Government intends to prevent "dumping" by bringing forward legislation to check the importation of goods at prices below the British cost of production, and that it proposes to give the Board of Trade power to prohibit, except by special license, the importation of goods produced by "unstable" "key" industries. Within three days of the Prime Minister's speech, the commissioners of customs also issue a list of dutiable articles, ranging from tea and coffee to motor cars, on which preferential rates will be granted to producers within the Empire.

Strip these announcements of all claptrap, and there emerges a scheme of protection and preference almost full-blown, a scheme to be put into effect in no small part by executive action. Small wonder that the Premier is charged with arrogating to himself almost presidential powers, or that *The Westminster Gazette* protests vehemently because "this enormous revolution in fiscal policy, extending, in all probability, to the whole field of industry, is to be carried out under a camouflage by Sir Auckland Geddes at a time when the Cabinet is dispersed and Parliament is taking a holiday." Mr. Lloyd George has in fact gone over bag and baggage to the protectionists.

With an economic consistency necessitated by the character of his present support, the Prime Minister next rejects the majority report of the Coal Commission in favor of nationalization, and adopts instead substantially Sir Arthur Duckham's proposal for the unification of mine operation, proposing government purchase of mineral rights, but not ownership and operation of mines. Even if such a course could satisfy the demands of British labor, which it pretty plainly cannot, it is to be observed that it would do no more than shift the burden of royalties; for the Government must somewhere find the money to buy the mineral rights. Labor has taken strong ground in favor of nationalization, and a bitter fight is to be expected over this issue.

Historically, the situation is highly interesting. A decade since, Mr. Lloyd George, at that time denounced by his present supporters as a radical demagogue, countered the Chamberlain scheme of protection and preference by a plan, far-reaching for the England of that day, of taxation of land values—and the radical Lloyd George won. Today, a tory Lloyd George embraces a scheme of protection and preference, and rejects the radical demand for nationalization of mines—a demand which, by comparison with the Lloyd George proposals of 1909, shows how far British thought has travelled in ten years. Adroit politician that he is, can the Prime Minister today lead the forces of reaction as successfully as he once led the hosts of reform? The lines of the political battle-front are beginning to take shape.

The proposals adumbrated by Mr. Lloyd George for a forty-eight-hour week and a living wage, joined with a system of joint industrial councils, are in themselves no more serious than his homily on spending less and producing more. Important and significant as the proposals are, they do little more in reality than give registration to industrial changes already accomplished in essence by working-class action outside parliamentary channels. The homily states an unpleasant truth that must be recognized by all classes in England if disaster is to be avoided, but even if the Government itself were not the worst sinner, the exhortation would have little effect on the Premier's hearers. If British industry is suffering from extravagance and sabotage, whether of employers or of employees, the trouble is not to be cured by sermons. Robert Smillie is quoted as saying, "We could produce enough in less than a six-hour day if we were not producing to make millionaires." The statement touches the heart of Britain's economic troubles. Laborers and capitalists are so mutually suspicious as to make impossible effective coöperation in the staggering tasks confronting them. The problem is indeed one of production, but adequate production apparently cannot in Britain's present temper be obtained save by a distribution which cuts out the inequities so long incorporated in her industrial life, thus satisfying all concerned that they are getting what they deserve.

Mr. Lloyd George's address gives no indication that he has so much as seen this problem. His failure marks him as belonging to an industrial and social order that is rapidly passing away. His tariff jugglery, if covered with a proper camouflage of industrial democracy, may for the time being enable him to hold his place as a leader of that order, but it is not in such leaders that England's hope lies. Leaving the Premier fearful and uncomprehending in the midst of the ruin his own hands have helped to work, the British democracy will turn itself to other men and other measures. But it must gird up its loins for a long and bitter struggle; the millennium does not wait just around the corner.

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Rasselas—New Style

WE learn with regret that a duke of the reigning house of Abyssinia, who has been paying a state visit of courtesy to America, has left our shores in dudgeon, partly because of an affront to his color, and partly because of our Government's failure to show him the consideration due to his rank. As to the former, he would hardly have been surprised if he could have read the American newspapers. As to the latter, royalties of any color are so infrequent on our coasts that our democratic officials are hardly to blame if they do not know how to treat them. But the incident has more than a diplomatic significance. It is a parable, a "repeat of history."

For it will be remembered that a prince of Abyssinia long ago left his Happy Valley in search, paradoxically enough, of happiness. We fear that the chronicle of his adventures is not so well known to readers of this generation as it ought to be, and we therefore make no apology for recalling to their attention the neglected merits of this delightful book. For humor, irony, penetration, sanity, and substance, it deserves to be named with "Candide," and higher praise, in its class, we are unable to bestow. But we are interested for the moment not in its literary merits, but in its suggestiveness as a fable.

The elder Rasselas, unlike the new, left behind him in the Happy Valley most of the delights and conveniences of what we are pleased to call civilization—mechanical music, artificial ventilation, running water in the upper rooms of his palace; but these things did not satisfy him. Happiness was not in them, and he must needs go forth and seek it in "the world and wave of men." He did not find it there, either, and the record of his quest ends quite fittingly with a "conclusion in which nothing is concluded." The elder Rasselas's most amusing experience—and this the younger could have repeated if he had been properly directed—was an encounter with a meteorologist, the distant ancestor of the whole race of "weather-men," who fancied that he actually made the conditions that he observed. "I have possessed," he said, "for five years, the regulation of the weather and the distribution of the seasons; the sun has listened to my dictates; the clouds at my call have poured their waters. . . . I have administered this great office with exact justice, and made to the different nations of the earth an impartial dividend of rain and sunshine." One agreeable feature of the elder Rasselas's pilgrimage—wanting, so far as we know, to the younger—was the presence of his sister Nekayah, that charming and sententious misogamist, who became, as might have been anticipated, the founder and president of a woman's college, in order that she might "raise up for the next age models of prudence and patterns of piety."

The laws and customs of Abyssinia have apparently been modified in the course of years, and the new Rasselas, unlike the old, can return to his Happy Valley. Upon him the iron gate has not forever closed. Whether he would have been consoled for his exile by his experience of the amenities of Caucasian civilization we may perhaps doubt. In any case, he is, to our mind, a touching and instructive figure. "Ye who listen with credulity to the whispers of fancy, and pursue with eagerness the phantoms of hope . . . attend to the history of Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia."

The Price of a Child

BY WILLIAM L. CHENERY

THE proper price to be paid for a child is a problem enormously important just now. At this moment the cost of living takes precedence on the calendars of half the governments of the world. What were once family matters of chiefly private concern have become the substance of ministerial crises threatening the continuance of many administrations. It is relevant accordingly to attend briefly to the findings of those who have sought to determine the precise expenditure required in the nurture of children, for only upon the basis of such findings is it possible to view the problem rationally. He who knows the price which the average man and woman must pay to bring up their young is in possession of one of the unobtrusively potent factors which influence the thinking of great masses of mankind. In truth, the statesman who wishes to understand how his fellow citizens are thinking and feeling can do little better than to seek to discover what is going on within the working-class home. Upon such knowledge depends the statesmanship of tomorrow.

What is the cost of a child? What does the rearing of an American child involve in money? These questions are not prompted by indecent curiosity. They were not formulated by "percenters," bitten with the desire to express the most intangible values in the material terms of copper, silver, gold, or paper. They are put, on the contrary, by those who are sensitive to the finer values of civilization and who are concerned to see wide enjoyment—a universal appreciation of the excellent gifts of the earth. In a forthcoming publication of the Federal Children's Bureau, a volume entitled "Standards of Child Welfare," estimates of the cost of children are recounted with a precision that is invaluable. Some of the most detailed are offered by Professor William F. Ogburn, of Columbia University, from studies made for the National War Labor Board and for the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. In studying the budgets of families in Philadelphia whose incomes varied from $800 to $2,000 annually, Professor Ogburn found that on the average, $718 was added to the family food expenditures by rearing a child from birth to sixteen years. He discovered, however, that during those first sixteen years of life, the average child probably consumed food to the value of $1,750. He concluded that the difference between $718, the amount by which the food bills were actually increased, and $1,750, the value of the food probably eaten by the child, indicated the economies, the adjustments, the sacrifices made necessary in the working-class family by the presence of a child. Similarly the actual amount spent on clothing for a boy from birth to sixteen years, as computed item by item from families of the working class with incomes of $1,500 or thereabouts, and with three children, was $525; but the total clothing expenditure of the family was increased only $265 during this period of sixteen years. Evidently the parents have had to economize severely in clothing themselves in order to clothe the boy. Taking all items into consideration, Professor Ogburn found that among the Philadelphia families from which he was able to get figures, $1,325 on the average was added to the family budget in rearing a child to sixteen years of age. That was the net increase in total expenditures caused by the presence of the

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child. But he found that the child consumed commodities to the value of at least twice that amount. This again shows the degree of self-denial which the father and mother have had to practice in order to sustain their children.

In a chapter based on the cost-of-living studies of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Commissioner Royal Meeker reported the same conclusion. "In many incomes which I have studied I have noted that with the increase in the family, every item of expenditure, except food, declines not simply in percentage, but in absolute amounts. That means, of course, that comforts and even necessities must be sacrificed to meet the most pressing need—the need for food." From another standpoint Dean S. P. Breckinridge, of the University of Chicago, offered estimates showing the cost of child care. The Chicago Council of Social Agencies, a group of organizations using charitable funds to support dependent families, reckoned the minimum cost of the support of families with children in Chicago this year. Charity naturally keeps to the minimum consistent with life. On the barest basis it was estimated that the support of a child three years old costs $117.80 a year. This sum increases gradually with the age of the child. For a girl between 13 and 14 years, the sum essential is $186.70. For a boy of the same age, $199.70 is the lowest at which wholesome life may be maintained. These Chicago estimates, it is significant to note, presupposed that public doctors and nurses would be used. If medical attention were paid for, the cost of rearing a child would be accordingly higher. Miss Florence Nesbitt, institute instructor in dietetics for the American Red Cross, also reported the results of her inquiry. She found that in cities like Cleveland and Chicago, "it cost approximately $1,500 a year to buy the essentials for maintaining the average family of five—father, mother, and three children—at what we might consider a normal standard." Both Miss Nesbitt and Dean Breckinridge expressed the belief that neither now nor at any time in the past have more than a minority of the working-class families possessed incomes sufficient to sustain life at a standard which even a philanthropic organization could pronounce wholesome or safe.

The situation has probably never been different. From the moment in the eighteenth century when the conscience of the comfortable began to be stirred by the standard of living among the workers, the record has been one of insufficiency. We know that it was not better before the industrial era opened. Light, strange to modern eyes, is thrown on the situation by some of the reporters on conditions during our own non-industrial era of slavery. Then, cheap as was the life of a slave, the life of a free worker was sometimes valued at even less. Thus, Professor U. B. Phillips, in his recent study of "American Negro Slavery," quotes W. H. Russell, who, in 1860, wrote as follows of conditions on a Louisiana plantation:

> The labor of ditching, trenching, cleaning the waste lands and hewing down the forests is generally done by Irish laborers who travel about the country under contractors, or are engaged by resident gangsmen for the task. Mr. Seal lamented the high prices for this work; but then, as he said, "it is much better to have the Irish do it, who cost nothing to the planter if they died, than to use up good field hands in such employment."

Comments of this nature, easily accessible, indicate how lightly governing opinion regarded the domestic problems of the workers in the not distant past. In truth until the present, the nation did not trouble itself to ascertain the cost of rearing children except when children represented property. It is easy to learn what it probably cost to rear a slave child. On the Gold Coast, for example, 15 boys and girls were bought in 1752 by a New England trader for 65 gallons of rum. Rum was then worth 1s. 8d. a gallon. But these children and their successors in the United States were rated at higher figures. Maryland assessed slave children for taxation. In 1852 boys of 12 years were appraised at $75 and girls of the same age at only $50—which indicates perhaps, among other things, the low estimate which an age of chivalry placed upon the worth of woman. But values used as the basis of taxation are notoriously low, and accordingly the nurture of slave children must have been much more expensive than these figures would suggest. *Chambers Journal*, in a quotation published in London in 1861 by Frederick Law Olmstead, gave the following statement said to have been supplied by a dealer:

Best men, 18 to 25 years old	$1,200 to $1,300
Fair men, 18 to 25 years old	950 to 1,050
Boys, 5 feet	850 to 950
Boys, 4 feet 8 inches	700 to 800
Boys, 4 feet 5 inches	500 to 600
Boys, 4 feet	375 to 450
Young women	800 to 1,000
Girls, 5 feet	750 to 850
Girls, 4 feet 9 inches	700 to 750
Girls, 4 feet	350 to 450

Repellent as is the memory of the dreadful era in which men and women lived in acknowledged bondage, it is a fact worthy of consideration that only when children were property was their social cost computed. Not until this present age has it seemed desirable to study what the free working-people of the nation have given in exchange for the nurture of their children. Moreover, what is known is not reassuring, for according to no defensible standard can it be said that the great majority have enough to assure the wholesome upbringing of their children. But the question arises, if the majority have not enough to provide for their offspring, how do the generations manage to renew themselves? The answer is that a terrible and needless waste of life is suffered. The Children's Bureau demonstrated this during its impressive series of studies in infant mortality. By inquiring into the circumstances surrounding the deaths of infants in several cities, the Bureau arrived at the appalling conclusion that between the income earned by the father and the child's chances of life there is a connection so close that it approaches a mathematical law. When the father earns $450 or less annually it appears that 167 children out of every 1,000 die within a twelvemonth. When, on the other hand, the father earns $1,250 or more annually, only 59 children out of every 1,000 are sacrificed. Hence it is perfectly clear that while in all working-class families, the presence of children entails heavy sacrifices, in the lowest income groups, death is a frequent visitor.

Of such a nature are some of the conditions now clearly known to exist. The cost of rearing children has been discovered. The inability of a great section of the population to pay the cost of even the minimum elements necessary to the safe upbringing of children cannot be challenged by any who trouble themselves to examine the facts. The ceaseless waste of human life which results from this inadequacy of income has been proved. What will America do about it? On the answer to that question depends in a high degree the future of the country.

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Hey, Rub-A-Dub-Dub

By THEODORE DREISER

(Taken from notes of the late John Paradiso)

I HAVE lived now to my fortieth year, and have seen a good deal of life. Just now, because of a stretch of poverty, I am living across the river from New York, in New Jersey, in sight of a splendid tower, the Woolworth Building on the lower end of Manhattan, which lifts its defiant spear of clay into the very maw of heaven. And although I am by no means as far from it as is Fifth Avenue, still I am a dweller in one of the shabbiest, most forlorn neighborhoods which the great metropolis affords. About me dwell principally Poles and Hungarians, who palaver in a lingo of which I know nothing and who live as I should despise to live, poor as I am. For after all, in my hall-bedroom, which commands the river over the lumber-yard, there is some attempt at intellectual adornment, whereas outside and around me there is little more than dull and to a certain extent aggrieved drudgery.

Not so very far from me is a church, a great yellow structure, which lifts its walls out of a ruck of cheap frame houses and those muddy unpaved streets which are the pride of Jersey City and Hoboken. Here, if I will, I can hear splendid masses intoned, see bright altars and stained glass windows and people going to confession and burning votive candles before images. And if I go of a Sunday, which I rarely if ever do, I can hear regularly that there is a Christ who died for men, and that He was the son of the living God, who liveth and reigneth, world without end.

I have no quarrel with this doctrine. I can hear it in a hundred thousand churches throughout the world. But I am one of those curious persons who cannot make up their minds about anything. I read and read, almost everything that I can lay hands on—history, politics, philosophy, art. But I find that one history contradicts another; one philosopher drives out another. Essayists, in the main, point out flaws and paradoxes in the current conception of things. Novelists, dramatists, and biographers spread tales of endless disasters or silly illusions concerning life, love, duty, opportunity, and the like. And I sit here and read and read, when I have time, wondering.

For, friends, I am a scrivener by trade—or try to be. Betimes, trying to make up my mind what to say about life, I am a motorman on a street-car at three dollars and twenty cents a day. I have been a handy man in a junk shop, a wagon driver, anything you will, so long as thereby I could keep body and soul together. I am not handsome, and therefore not attractive to women probably (at any rate I appear not to be), and in consequence am very much alone. Indeed I am a great coward when it comes to women. Their least frown or mood of indifference frightens me and makes me turn inward to myself, where dwell innumerable beautiful women, who smile and nod and hang on my arm and tell me they love me. Indeed they whisper of scenes so beautiful and so comforting that I know they are not, and never could be, true. And so in my best moments I sit at my table and try to write stories which no doubt equally necessitous editors find wholly unavailable.

The things which keep me thinking and thinking are, first, my social and financial state; second, the difference between my point of view and that of thousands of other respectable citizens who, being able to make up their minds, seem to find me queer, dull, recessive, or at any rate unsuited to their tastes and pleasures. I look at them, and while I say, "Well, thank heaven, I am not like that," still I immediately ask myself, "Am I not all wrong? Should I not be happier if I, too, were like John Spitovesky, or Jacob Feilchenfeld, or Vaclav Melka?" some of my present neighbors. For Spitovesky, to grow a little personal, is a small, dusty man who has a tobacco store around the corner, and who would, I earnestly believe, run if threatened with a bath. He smokes his own three-for-fives (Flor de Sissel Grass) and deposits much of the ashes between his waistcoat and gray-striped cotton shirt. His hair, sticking out bushily over his ears, looks as though it were heavily peppered with golden snuff.

"Mr. Spitovesky," I said to him one day, "have you been reading anything about the Colorado mining troubles?"

"I never read de papers," he said, with a shrug of the shoulder.

"No? Not at all?" I pursued.

"Dere is nodding in dem—lies mostly. Sometimes I look ad de baseball news in sommer."

"Oh, I see," I said, hopelessly. Then, apropos of nothing, or because I was curious as to my neighbors, "Are you a Catholic?"

"I doaned belong to no church. I doaned mix in no politics, neider. Some hof de men aboud here get excited aboud politics. I got no time. I tend to mine store."

Seeing him standing for hours against his doorpost, or sitting out in front, smoking, while his darksome little wife peels potatoes, or sews, or fusses with the children, I could never understand his "I got no time."

In a related sense there are my friends, Jacob Feilchenfeld and Vaclav Melka, whom I sometimes envy for their tranquillity of mind: the former, the butcher to whom I run for chops and pigs' feet for my landlady, Mrs. Wscrinkuus; the latter the keeper of a spirituous emporium whose windows read, "Vynas, Scnapsas." Jacob, like every other honest butcher worthy the name, is broad and beefy. I can sum up Mr. Feilchenfeld's philosophy of life when I report that to every intellectual advance I make he exclaims in a friendly enough way, "I dunno," or "I ain't never heard about dot." My pride in a sturdy, passive acceptance of things, however, is nearly realized by Vaclav Melka, the happy dispenser of "Vynas, Scnapsas." He also is to be frequently found leaning in his doorway in summer, business being not too brisk during the daytime, surveying the world with a reflective eye. He is dark, stocky, black-haired, black-eyed, a good Pole, with a head like a wooden peg, almost flat at the top, and driven firmly albeit not ungracefully into his shoulders. He has a wife who is a slattern and nearly a slave, and three children, who seem to take no noticeable harm from this saloon life. Leaning in coatless ease against his sticky bar of an evening, he has laid down the law concerning morals and ethics thus: no lying or stealing—among friends; no brawling or assaults or murdering for any save tremendous reasons of passion; no truckling to priests, who should mind their own business.

"Did you ever read a book, Melka?" I once asked him.

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It was apropos of a discussion concerning a local brawl.

"Once. It was about a feller wot killed a woman. Mostly I ain't got no time to read. Once I was a bath-rubber, and I had time then, but that was long ago. Books ain't nutting for me."

But over the river from all this is another picture which disturbs me even more than my present surroundings because, as seen from here, it is seemingly beautiful and inviting. Its tall walls are those of a fabled city. I can almost hear the tinkle of endless wealth in banks, the honks of automobiles, the fanfare of a great constructive trade life. At night all its myriad lights seem to wink at me and exclaim, "Why so incompetent? Why so idle, so poor? Why live in such a wretched neighborhood? Why not cross over and join the gay throng, make a successful way for yourself? Why sit aside from this great game of materiality, pretending to ignore it or to feel superior?"

So it seems to me as I sit and think. But, alas, I haven't the least faculty for making money, not the least. All the wonderful things I see or of which I hear are apparently not for me. I have no material, constructive sense. I am not quick at figures, nor am I clever with my hands. I can only think and write, in a way. I see these vast institutions (there are great warehouses on this side, too), filled to overflowing, apparently, with the financially interested and capable, but I—I have not the least idea how to do likewise. Yet I am not lazy; I toil over my stories or bounce out of bed and hurry to my work of a morning. I have never earned more than thirty-five dollars a week. No, I am not brilliant financially.

But the thing that troubles me most is the constant palaver going on in the papers and everywhere concerning right, truth, duty, justice, mercy, and the like, things which I do not find expressed very clearly in my own motives or in the motives of those immediately about me; also the apparently earnest belief of ever so many editors, authors, social reformers, et cetera, that every person, however weak or dull-appearing externally, contains within himself the seed or the mechanism for producing endless energy and ability, providing he can only be made to realize that he has it. In other words, we are all Napoleons, only we don't know it or won't believe it. We are lazy Napoleons, idle Hannibals, wasteful and indifferent John D. Rockefellers. Turn the pages of any magazine—are there not advertisements of and treatises on How To Be Successful, the authors thereof offering to impart their knowledge of how so to be for a comparative song?

Well, as I say, I am not one who can believe that. In my very humble estimation, people are not so. They are in the main, as I see it, weak and limited, exceedingly so, like Vaclav Melka or Mrs. Wscrinkuus; and to fill their humble brains with notions of an impossible supremacy, if it could be done, would be to send them forth to breast the ocean in a cockleshell. And yet here on my table, borrowed from the local library for purposes of idle or critical examination, is a book entitled, "Take It!"—"It" meaning *the world;* and another, "It's Yours!"—the "It" in this case meaning that same great world! All you have to do is to decide so to do—and to try! Am I a fool to smile at this very stout doctrine, to doubt whether you can get more than four quarts out of any four-quart measure, if so much?

But to return to this same matter of right, truth, justice, mercy, so freely advertised in these days and so clearly defined, apparently, in every one's mind as open paths by which they may proceed. In the main it seems to me that people are not concerned about right, or truth, or justice, or mercy, or duty, as abstract principles or working rules, nor do I believe that the average man knows clearly or even semi-clearly what is meant by the words. His only relation to them, so far as I can see, is that he finds them used in a certain reckless, thoughtless way to represent some method of adjustment by which he would like to think he is protected from assault or saved from misery, and so uses them himself. His concern for them as related to the other individual is that the other individual should not infringe on him, and I am now speaking of the common unsuccessful mass as well as of the successful.

Mrs. Wscrinkuus, poor woman, is stingy and slightly suspicious, although she goes to church Sundays and believes that Christ's Sermon on the Mount is the living truth. She does not want any one to be mean to her; she does not do anything mean to other people, largely because she has no particular taste or capacity in that direction. Supposing I should advise her to take "It," assure her that "It" was hers, by right of capability! What would become of "right," "truth," "justice," "mercy," in that case?

Or, once more, let us take Jacob Feilchenfeld and John Spitovesky, who care for no man beyond their trade and whose attitude toward right, truth, mercy, justice is as I have pointed out. Suppose I should tell them to take "It," or assure them that "It" was theirs? Of what import would the message be? Vaclav Melka does favors only in return for favors. He does not like priests because they are always taking up collections. If you told him to take "It," he would proceed to take something away from the very good fathers first of all. Everywhere I find the common man imbued with this feeling for self-protection and self-advancement. "Truth" is something that must be told to him; "justice" is what he deserves—although if it costs him nothing he will gladly see it extended to the other fellow.

The Catholics believe, for instance, that Christ died on the Cross for them, and that unless the Buddhists, Shintoists, Mohammedans, et cetera, reform or find Christ, they will be lost. Eight hundred million Mohammedans believe quite otherwise. Three hundred million Buddhists believe something else. The Christian Scientists and Hicksites believe still differently. Then there are historians who doubt the authenticity of Christ (Gibbon, Volume I, Chapters 14, 15, 16). Where is a moral order which puts a false interpretation on history as in the case of sectarian literature (lists furnished on application), or allows fetiches to flourish like the grass of the new year?

I will admit that in cases such as lying, stealing, and the like, there is always a so-called moral thing to do or say when these so-called moral principles or beatitudes are inveighed against. You have ridden on a street-car; pay your fare. You have received five dollars from a given man; return it. You have had endless favors from a given individual; do not malign him. Such are the obvious and commonplace things with which these great words are concerned, and in these *prima facie* cases, these so-called principles work well enough.

But take a case where temperament or body-needs or appetites fly in the face of man-made order, where a great spirit-thirst stands out against a life-made convention. Here is a man-made law, and here is dire necessity. On which side is Right? On which side God?

(1) A girl falls in love with a boy to whom the father

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takes an instant dislike. The father is not better than the lover; just different. The girl and boy are aflame (no chemical law of their invention, mind you), and when the father opposes them, they wed secretly. Result, rage. A weak temperament on the part of the father (no invention of his own) causes him to drink. On sight, in liquor, he kills the youth. The law says he must be hanged unless justified. A lie on the part of the girl defaming the lover-husband will save the father. On which side now do right, truth, justice, mercy, stand?

(2) A man has a great trade idea. He sees how, by combining fourteen companies, he can reduce the cost of manufacture and sell a very necessary product to the public at a reduced rate, while he makes himself rich. In the matter of principle and procedure (right, truth, justice), since his competitors will not sell out, he is confronted by the following propositions: (a) forming a joint-stock company and permitting them all to share in the profits; (b) giving them the idea, asking nothing, and allowing them to form a company of their own, so helping humanity; (c) making a secret combination with four or five and underselling the others and so compelling them to sell or quit; (d) doing nothing, letting time and chance work and the public wait. Now it so happens that the second and fourth are the only things that can be done without opposition. He is a man of brains and ideals. What are his rights, duties, privileges? Where do justice, mercy, truth, fit in here, and how?

(3) A man's son has committed a crime. The man realizes that owing to deficiencies of his own he has never been able to give the boy an adequate training or a fair chance. The law demands that he give up his son, even though he loves him dearly and feels himself responsible. Where do right, justice, mercy work here, and can they be made harmonious and consonant?

These are but three instances from the current papers. I have cited them to show how topsy-turvy the world seems to me, how impossible of a fixed explanation or rule. Scarcely any two individuals but will be at variance on these propositions. Yet the religionists, the moralists, the editorial writers preach a faith and an obvious line of duty which they grandiosely label "right," or "true," or "just," or "merciful." My observation and experience lead me to believe that there is scarcely a so-called sane, right, merciful, true, just solution to anything.

"But only look," some one is sure to cry, "at some of the beautiful, wonderful, helpful things which Divine Providence, or Life, or Force, or Energy, has provided now and here for man! Railroads; telegraphy; the telephone; theatres; gas; electricity; clothing of all sorts; newspapers; books; hotels; stores; fire departments; hospitals; plumbing; the pleasures of love and sex; music." An admirable list, truly, and provided by one struggling genius or another, or by the slow, cataclysmic processes of nature: fires, deaths, and painful births. Aside from the fact that all of these things can be and are used for evil as well as for good purposes (trust oppression, enemy wars, and the like), still it might as well be supplemented by such things as jails, detectives, penitentiaries, courts of law—good or evil things, as you choose to look at them. All of these things are good in the hands of good people, evil in the hands of evil, and nature seems not to care which group uses them. A hospital will aid a scoundrel as readily as a good man, and vice versa.

Common dust swept into our atmosphere makes our beautiful sunsets and blue sky. Sidereal space, as we know it, is said to be one welter of strangely-flowing streams of rock and dust, a wretched mass made attractive only by some vast compulsory coalition into a star. Stars clash and blaze, and the whole great complicated system seems one erosive, chaffering, bickering effort, with here and there a tendency to stillness and petrifaction. This world as we know it, the human race and the accompanying welter of animals and insects, do they not, aside from momentary phases of delight and beauty, often strike you as dull, aimless, cruel, useless? Are not the processes by which they are produced, or those by which they live (the Chicago slaughter-houses, for instance) stark, relentless, brutal, shameful even?—life living on life, the preying of one on another, the compulsory aging of all, the hungers, thirsts, destroying losses and pains. . . .

But I was talking of Jersey City and my difficulty in adjusting myself to the life about me, thinking as I do. Yet such facts as I can gather only confound me the more. Take the daily papers which I have been reading to beguile my loneliness, and note that:

(1) Two old people who lived near me, after working hard for years to supply themselves with a competence, were ruined by the failure of a bank and were compelled to seek work, in which they were not successful. They were forced to make a choice between living on charity, and dying. Wishing to be as agreeable to the world as possible, they chose death by gas, locking the doors of their bare little home, stuffing paper and clothing into chinks and under doors and windows, and turning on the gas, seated side-by-side and hand-in-hand. Naturally the end came quickly enough, for Divine Mind has no opposition to ordinary illuminating gas killing any one; and yet at the same time, according to the same papers, in this very same world,

(2) The sixteen-year-old son of a multi-millionaire real-estate holder was left over fifty million dollars by his fond father, who did not know what else to do with it, said son having not as yet done anything to deserve it, save to be the son of the aforesaid father.

(3) A somewhat bored group of Newport millionairesses give a dinner for the pet dogs of their equally wealthy friends, one particular dog or dogess being host or hostess.

(4) A Staten Island brewer worth twenty millions died of heart failure, induced by undue joy over having been elected snare drummer of a Shriners' lodge, after spending thousands upon thousands in organizing a band of his own and developing sufficient influence to cause a Shriners' organization to tolerate him.

(5) A millionaire politician and horse-racer erected a fifteen-thousand-dollar monument to a horse.

(6) An uneducated darkey, trying to make his way North, climbed upon the carriage trucks of a Pullman and was swept North into a blizzard, where he was finally found dying of exhaustion, arms and legs frozen, and did die—a victim to his effort to better his condition.

Puzzle: Locate Divine Mind, Light, Wisdom, Truth, Justice, Mercy in these items.

By those same papers, covering a period of several months or more, I saw that:

(1) Several people died waiting in line on bundle-day for bundles of cast-off clothing—not such people as you and I, perhaps, but those who were sick, or old, or weak.

(2) Mr. Ford, manufacturer of automobiles, was convinced that he could reform any criminal or bad character

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by giving him or her plenty of work at good wages and with the prospect of advancement; also that he was earning too much and wished to divide with his fellow man.

(3) August Belmont and J. P. Morgan, on seeing this item, concluded that they could not do anything for any one, intellectually, financially, or otherwise.

(4) An attendant in an Odd Fellows' Home, having tired of some old patients, chloroformed them all—a purely pagan event, and not possible in an enlightened age and a Christian country.

(5) A priest having murdered a girl and confessed to it, no way was found to electrocute him because of his cloth.

(6) A young soldier and his bride, but one day married, walking out to buy furniture for their new home, a street fight, in which three toughs assail each other with pistols, breaks out, and before they can take to cover, a stray bullet instantly kills the soldier-husband. Subsequently the bride becomes morbid and goes insane.

(7) In nearly all the countries of the late great war, a day of prayer for divine intervention was indulged in, but prayer having been made and not answered, the combatants proceeded to make more and worse war—divine prohibition of combat, according to the Christian dogma, being no bar nor of any avail.

(8) One man was given one year for a cold, brutal manslaughter in New York, whereas a whole family of colored people in the South was strung up and riddled with bullets for so little as that one of them fought with a deputy sheriff; while a woman who had shot another woman through a window because of jealousy (aroused by her husband's assumed attentions to said woman) was acquitted and then went on the stage, the general sentiment being that "one could not electrocute a woman."

(9) The principal charities aid society of New York had spent and was spending one hundred and fifty thousand per year on running expenses, and something over ninety thousand in actual relief work, though it was explained that the hundred and fifty brought about much reference of worthy cases to other agencies and private charities.

(10) It is immoral and un-Christian to have a child without a husband, yet when six hundred thousand men are withdrawn from England to fight the Germans, and twenty thousand virgins become war-brides, it is proposed to legalize their offspring on the ground that it is nevertheless moral to preserve the nation from extinction.

(11) The president of one of the largest and most profitable street railway corporations in the world finds it wrong to fail to rise and give your seat to a woman, but right to run so few cars as to make seats available for only one-third of the traffic; wrong not to take extreme precaution in stepping off or on a car or crossing the tracks, right to run the cars without heat, the windows and floors dirty and the doors broken; to mulct the city, composed of these same passengers, of millions via stolen franchises, watered stock, avoided taxes, the refusal of transfers at principal intersections, to say nothing of opposition to the jitney bus and other means which would relieve traffic pressure.

(12) A man who had served twenty years in a Western penitentiary, having been sent there because of circumstantial evidence, was freed, the real offender having confessed on his death-bed.

(13) A certain landlord in New York compelled a family to move, not because they, but some of their visitors, wore shabby, hence undesirable clothes, thus lowering the social and material tone of the apartment house. This was a Riverside Drive apartment.

But need I cite more, really?

It is because of these things that I sit in my hall-bedroom, a great panorama of beauty spread out before me, and in attempting to write of this thing, life, find myself confused. The scenes that I look upon are beautiful enough—sun, moon, and stars swinging in their courses, seemingly mathematically and with great art or charm. And the river at this moment is begemmed with thousands of lights—a truly artistic and poetic spectacle and one not to be gainsaid. By day it is gray, or blue, or green, wondrous shades by turns; by night a jewel world. Gulls wheel over it. Tugs strain cheerily to and fro, emitting gorgeous plumes of smoke. Snows, rains, warmths, colds come in endless variety, the fillip, force, and color of our days.

Still I am confused. Life seems to prove but one thing to me: that the various statements concerning right, truth, justice, mercy are palaver merely, an earnest and necessitous attempt perhaps at balance of equation, where all things are so very much unbalanced, paradoxical, and contradictory—the small-change names for a thing or things of which we have not yet caught the meaning. History teaches me little save that nothing is really dependable or assured, but all inexplicable. Current action, it appears, demonstrates much the same thing. Kings and emperors have risen and gone. Generals and captains have warred and departed. Philosophers have dreamed, poets have written—and I, mussing around among religions, philosophies, fictions, and facts, can find nothing wherewith to salve my vaulting egoism, no light, and no way to be anything more than the humblest servitor.

Among so much that is tempestuous and glittering I merely look out at the river flowing by now, after millions of years of silence and waste, and say to myself, "Where there is so much order and love of order everywhere and in every one, there must be some great elemental spirit holding for order of sorts, at any rate. Stars do not swing in given orbits for nothing surely—or at least I might have faith to that extent." But when I step out and encounter, as I daily do, lust and greed, plotting and trapping, envy and all uncharitableness, and even murder—all severely condemned by the social code, the Bible, and a thousand wise laws and saws—and see also, as I daily do, vast schemes of chicane grinding the faces of the poor, wars brutally involving the death of millions whose lives are precious to them, because of the love of power on the part of some one or many, I am not so sure. Illusions hold too many; lust and greed, vast and bleary-eyed, dominate too many more. Ignorance, vast and almost unconquerable, hugs and licks its chains in reverence. Brute strength sits empurpled and laughs a throaty laugh.

Yet here is the great river—that is beautiful; and Mr. Woolworth's tower, a strange attempt on the part of man to seem more than he is; and a thousand other evidences of hopes and dreams, all too frail perhaps against the endless drag toward nothingness, but still lovely and comforting. . . . And yet here also is Vaclav Melka, who longs to be a bath-rubber again! John Spitovesky, who doesn't care; Jacob Feilchenfeld, who never heard; and millions of others like them; and I—I think and grow confused—and earn nineteen-twenty a week or less. . . .

Come to think of it, is it not a wonder, holding such *outré* views as I do, that I earn anything at all?

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The Result of the White House Conference

By LINCOLN COLCORD

Washington, August 23

WASHINGTON is not by any means in such a chaotic condition as might appear. The great tussle of wits between the Senate Foreign Relations Committee and the President has taken place; and as the dust begins to settle, it is plain to be seen that the situation has been greatly clarified. But the true result is not at all what adherents of the Administration would have us suppose.

Such adherents find themselves in a difficult situation these days. They have little left to fall back on but loyalty, and even their loyalty is stretched to the point of extreme tenuousness. Few men are able to follow the dodgings and bucklings of the President's mind; and when party safety lies only in such a course, the strain upon ordinary mentality is distressing. The Democrats keep in line as well as they are able, but events are leading the President forward so recklessly that they are always about a couple of twists behind. They say, of course, that the White House conference was a triumph for the President; that he forced the opposition into the open, and compelled the various groups of the opposition to align themselves definitely and fix their policies. They say that the President answered every question, blunted every shaft. They say that the opposition revealed itself in its true light, as an obstructionist movement, purely partisan in character. They say that the country may now see that ratification is imperative.

All this, of course, is predicated on a partisan assumption, and springs from a partisanship more bitter and absolute than the country has seen for many a long day. Nothing is so intense as the partisanship of defeat; and it begins to look as if defeat now stared the President's policies in the face. This, too, is evident from the Democratic state of mind. The Administration is highly alarmed—there can be no question about it. Its supporters are talking wildly; they are accusing Washington, the country, and the world at large of madness and hysteria, when they themselves are the most hysterical men in sight. "Everything depends on peace!" they cry. "If you stop the peace, the world will plunge into Bolshevism." "Bolshevism, Bolshevism"—the word echoes through the humid air of midsummer. In hotel corridors, in cloak-rooms, along the wide streets, Democrats are threatening Republicans with the dire alarm of Bolshevism. Few know what they mean; but when they speak of "peace" they know exactly what they mean. They mean the peace treaty brought home by President Wilson, with every provision demanded by President Wilson, and no other.

The sad thing about all this is that it may be largely true. The Administration, through its contact with European conditions, has a keener realization of the state of the world than the opposition forces have. If the peace treaty is not signed, and signed soon, there is going to be a frightful time in Europe this winter. To sign the peace treaty might temporarily fend off some of the trouble. This much of the argument is quite logical. The tragedy is that the President did not begin at the beginning, insist on a treaty of liberalism calculated to solve the European tangle, stand by his guns, and bring home a real peace treaty. The signing of the present treaty might stave off a measure of trouble in the coming winter, but it would consign the Europe of the future, as well as the America of the future, to oceans of blood and wars innumerable.

It may be lucky, in a way, that the opposition forces are not in close touch with the course of revolution abroad, and so do not alarm themselves unduly over the danger of Bolshevism. There are few statesmen in the Republican camp, and few men of great moral integrity; not one of them has yet found the courage to come out against the treaty on the score of its moral depravity. But, in a partial vacuum, as it were, the Republican forces are drifting toward this position; are able to view the situation somewhat dispassionately, and to see that no threat of Bolshevism could be a valid justification for the signing of an evil pact. If Bolshevism there must be, then the blame lies with those who failed to draw up a fair and acceptable treaty, not with those who fail to ratify an immoral treaty.

At the opening of the present Congress, I predicted in *The Nation* that there would be surprising developments, that a Republican Congress would show more net liberalism than a Democratic Congress, and that it was not too much to expect that an opposition strong enough and sound enough to defeat the treaty and the League of Nations together would develop before the session was through. Events have gone a long way toward the fulfilment of that prediction; and the recent meeting at the White House is only another case in point. Since that meeting the Shantung decision in the Foreign Relations Committee—the vote to amend the treaty so as to give the former German rights in Shantung to China instead of to Japan—indicates beyond the shadow of a doubt the general direction in which affairs are heading.

The truth of the matter is that the result of the White House meeting was wholly favorable to the opposition. The Republican majority of the Foreign Relations Committee learned there for the first time through personal contact, and for the first time actually realized, the shocking weakness of the President's case, the almost pitiable insufficiency of his position. They had not quite believed it before. Told of the utter ignorance of the State Department, of the sheer guesswork and theory on which our foreign policy has been based throughout the war, they would shake their heads, and say, "You must be mistaken—such a state of affairs cannot be." When Secretary Lansing appeared before the Committee, however, and made his pathetic admissions, the opposition began to wake up to the real situation. And after the President himself had led them for three hours through the mazes of his psychology—after he had told them that a moral obligation is not a legal obligation, and hence that we should be under the heaviest obligations in the League of Nations, but that we should be under no obligations; after he had stated flatly that he knew nothing of the secret treaties until he went to Paris; after he had failed to reveal anything new, to say anything pertinent, to defend any point adequately, or to make any appeal to logic and reason —after this astonishing experience, the opposition members of the Foreign Relations Committee came away from the White House with a less exalted opinion of the Chief Executive and a more comfortable feeling in their minds.

In other words, they know now that the President hasn't a leg to stand on, that the advantage has altogether passed

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to them. The country recognizes that the President is on the defensive, and is beginning to realize how and why he failed. The American people are coming out from under the enchantment that Mr. Wilson imposed upon them during the last year of the war.

I would not have a single reader infer, from this analysis of the situation, that I attribute partisan motives to the Republican opposition. Partisan motives there are, of course; there is a legitimate measure of partisanship in every stand that a man takes. But it makes all the difference in the world whether a man wants his party to take the right stand, or whether he merely wants the country to take the stand adopted by his party. I have talked with many Senators on both sides of this issue during the summer, and if my estimate of men is correct, the Republican leaders who have opposed the peace treaty and the League of Nations have opposed them sincerely, from convictions of honor and patriotism, and from the results of honest and straightforward thought. Senator Knox must have made no slight personal sacrifice for the stand which he has taken. There are other conservative Senators who dared at a critical time to maintain an unpopular position. The sincerity of men like Senators Borah and Johnson cannot be questioned. And now that the tables are beginning to turn, I still believe that the opposition is not primarily inspired by partisanship. It seems logical, rather, that the partisanship is on the side of those who stubbornly persist in supporting an insupportable position.

It would be too much to say that the forces are in sight which are to defeat the whole treaty. That outright stand has not yet been taken by any group except the irreconcilables, and by them only unofficially; the mild reservationists and the rigid reservationists have nowhere near arrived at it. But just as, at the opening of the Congress, when the blind war-psychology still obsessed public opinion and few men dared to call their souls their own, it was possible to see in embryo, as it were, the forces which were to develop the present situation and clear up the issue as bravely as it already has been cleared, so today it is all the more easily possible to foresee a state of mind in the Senate, supported by public opinion, which refuses the treaty altogether, and demands a separate peace with Germany. It illustrates very nicely a process referred to many times by President Wilson himself, whereby the people of the world repudiate the acts of their arbitrary and irresponsible governors, and take the decision into their own hands.

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Teachers' Pay in New York

By OSWALD W. KNAUTH

BROADLY speaking, the salaries of teachers in New York city have remained unchanged for twenty years, and in those twenty years, prices have more than doubled. The index number of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States shows that prices have risen during this period in a ratio of 100 to 255. In other words, the purchasing power of the teacher's dollar has been more than halved, while the number of dollars has not been increased. Those who looked forward to some degree of comfort when they entered the service have found that their annual increases were entirely swallowed up by the higher costs of necessities. Studies of the minimum cost of subsistence in New York city for a family of five a decade ago agreed fairly closely upon a figure between $850 and $900; those of last summer, between $1350 and $1400, and since that time prices have risen about ten per cent. An investigation at the same time of the cost of "minimum comfort" by the War Trade Board arrived at the sum of $1760 per year. This means not only that the lower-paid teachers are actually receiving a salary below the minimum of existence, but that even the more highly paid are verging dangerously near the minimum level. Whereas a decade ago they received three times the minimum, today they have less than double that amount.

The facts in regard to salaries of New York teachers are contained in a diversity of schedules, each subdivided according to years of service, and complicated by exceptions and special grades. Of some 23,000 teachers, about 20,800 fall under five schedules, and the rest—specialists in music, sewing, instruction for the blind, cooking, physical training, shopwork, principals, and assistant principals—do not present a vitally different problem. By far the most important schedule is that known by the Board of Education as B 1, comprising 14,700 teachers, of whom the great majority are women. They teach the grammar-school classes from kindergarten to Grade 6 B. The salaries run from $900 per year for the first three years and $1,000 for the next three, to $1,600 as a maximum. Some 4,500 teachers receive $1,000 or less, and about the same number receive the maximum, which they attain after sixteen years of service. The remaining 5,700 fall in between these groups. After three years' experience, teachers are entitled to try an examination for a promotion license to the B 2 Schedule, teaching the classes 7 A to 8 B. If successful, they are admitted to the higher grade when vacancies occur. About 2,700 teachers are paid under this schedule, their salaries varying from $1,040 to $1,920; 2,000 of these receive the maximum, having served sixteen years or over.

Under the equal pay law of 1912, the men teachers already in the service were retained under their old schedules. New men, however, came under schedules B 1 and B 2, which accounts for the small number who have entered since that year. The old schedule (VI) for men teaching grades from kindergarten to 6 B is therefore still in force, varying from $900 to $2160, and covering 276 men, of whom seventy receive the maximum. Under schedule VII are those men who teach grades 7 A to 8 B, a total of 818, whose salaries vary from $1,650 to $2,400, the maximum being received by 629. The remainder average about $1,950 per year.

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There are 2,346 assistant teachers in high schools, about equally divided between men and women, whose salaries range between $900 and $2,650 after thirteen years of experience. Thirteen hundred receive the maximum, the rest ranging all the way from $1,650 to $2,500, since they do not generally come under this schedule until they have had five or six years' experience.

Of the women in New York's elementary schools, fifty per cent. receive $1,200 or less, and in high schools fifty per cent. receive $2,350 or less. Of the men in elementary schools, fifty per cent. receive $2,000 or less, and in high schools, fifty per cent. receive $2,500 or less. The following table summarizes the situation:

Schedule	*Number*	*Sex*	*Salary Range*	*Number receiving maximum*	*Median point of others*
B 1	14,717	mostly women	$900-1600	4,500	$1090
B 2	2,645	mostly women	$1040-1920	2,010	$1560
VI	276	men	$900-2160	70	$1425
VII	818	men	$1650-2400	629	$2000

Since 1900 there has been no far-reaching revision of the salary schedules with two minor exceptions. The equal pay law of 1912 for the elementary schools was a revision downward of men's salaries to the level of women's salaries; in the high schools, it was a revision upward. In the fall of 1918 a bonus of $100 for teachers in schedules B 1 and B 2 was voted, which, however, is not part of the law.

How serious is this situation from the standpoint of its effect on education? To test the excellence of teaching is well-nigh impossible. Yet in a school system as vast as that of New York, attempts to find standards of comparison must constantly be made. Withdrawals of men from the public schools increased from 63 in 1908 to 98 in 1917 and 85 in 1918; of women, from 676 in 1908 to 798 in 1917 and 1057 in 1918. This was especially noticeable in the high schools, from which withdrawals increased during this period from twenty-three to seventy-five men, and from eighteen to sixty-six women. The percentage of nominations to positions which were declined also showed an increase from thirteen per cent. to twenty-four per cent.

The number of applicants to the training schools from which the bulk of New York's teachers are drawn shows the same trend. From 894 in 1901-2, the applicants gradually increased until 1910-11, when they numbered 1807; but from then on, a steady shrinkage was reported, the number totalling only 1034 in 1916-17 and 750 in 1917-18. The number of teachers licensed from the outside has likewise decreased from a normal of between 200 and 300 to twenty-nine in 1918, suggesting that the salary increases in other cities or the opportunities outside of teaching have lessened the comparative attraction of positions in New York city schools practically to the vanishing point. In addition, it is generally believed that the standards required of New York's teachers have been lowered. On such a point, direct evidence is impossible, and yet the reduction in the requirements from three written papers to one, together with a similar curtailment of the oral tests, lends color to these statements. Moreover, despite the alleged lowering of the requirements, the percentage of failures has increased from 28.2 per cent. in 1914 to 31.2 per cent. in 1918, suggesting a very real lowering of the type of applicant.

The astonishing statement made by the Teachers Union last winter that, as a result of the shortage of teachers, 60,000 school children were without instructors, led to an inquiry into the situation by the superintendent of schools. The week ending February 28 last was chosen as being in all ways typical, and inquiries were sent out to cover that period. The returns disclosed the fact that 71,325 children were without instructors for some period during the week. Of these, approximately one-half lost only one-half day; but over 15,000 were without their instructor for the entire week; the rest suffered the intermediary losses. Owing to the resourcefulness of the principals in doubling up classes, and other administrative means, those without any instruction whatsoever were reduced to 25,000. The disorganization wrought by such stop-gap methods, when nearly ten per cent. of the total school children are affected, must be apparent to those who are familiar with class-room routine.

The shortage of teachers on December 31, 1918, on account of leaves of absence, absences on military service, and vacancies, was about 1170. What this means in regard to the excellence and continuity of instruction, aside from all questions of personnel, may only be approximated. Yet its seriousness cannot be minimized, and under present conditions there is no way of remedying the shortage. Another equally important factor in the situation is the estimate that three-fourths of all teachers resort to outside work of one kind or another in order to supplement their insufficient incomes.

The bill which was lately signed by Governor Smith, a practical duplicate of which was vetoed recently by Mayor Hylan, has for its basis the principles of equal pay, standardization of salary schedules, and general increases. Owing to the equal-pay principle, the increases accrue in large part to women, reaching in some cases as much as forty per cent. of the salaries they now get. Men's pay, on the other hand, increases for the most part from ten to twenty per cent. The total cost for New York city is estimated by Mr. Cook, Auditor of the Board, at slightly less than ten million dollars, of which one-third is to be added each year until the maximum is reached. These figures should be taken in connection with the total salaries for last year—some thirty-seven millions, and represent therefore an ultimate increase of about twenty-seven per cent.

Is even this sufficient to attract the large number of high-grade teachers necessary to conduct New York's educational system? Whatever the answer to this question, the structure as a whole will not break down, but it may continue to deteriorate. There is at present no danger of a teachers' strike. Not only are the teachers unorganized, but there is lacking the necessary consciousness of unity to make such action conceivable. Teachers' associations are in general formed for other purposes, and the Teachers Union, which represents the militant elements of the profession and is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, has a membership of only 1,200. The small membership of the Union may be due, however, to the influence of the Board. This dramatic way of bringing the matter before the public must therefore be dismissed as illusory, at least for the moment. But the movement of replacement, ponderous and slow as it is, is bringing about a different solution in the form of lower standards. It is delayed by the missionary spirit and devotion to the ideals of education which a teacher accepts as part payment for his work; but even missionaries and idealists have their limits, particularly when their poverty comes into conflict with family ambitions. Education has its price, and this cannot be borne permanently in undue measure by high-grade teachers. They will simply cease to teach.

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Foreign Correspondence

I. The Coming Election in France

Paris, August 6

ALTHOUGH the date has not yet been officially announced, it is generally assumed that the election of a new Chamber of Deputies will take place on October 26. The determination of the exact date is governed in part by certain legal requirements, and in part, in the present instance, by the exigencies of demobilization. By law, a period of twenty full days must intervene between the date of the promulgation of the decree convening the electors and the day on which the balloting takes place. As neither the day of promulgation nor that of balloting is counted as part of the required twenty days, the decree, assuming that the election is held on October 26, will be published in the *Journal Officiel* on October 4. The latter date coincides with the completion of the process of demobilization, which is already under way; and during the twenty days following, the electors, those who have been demobilized as well as others, are expected to make sure that their names are correctly inscribed on the electoral lists in accordance with a law of January 15 of the present year, and that any irregularities that may be found to exist are adjusted. The order in which the other elections will be held—those for municipal officials, for the general councils and councils of the arrondissements, and for Senators—has yet to be determined, and is subject, like the fixing of the date for the choice of Deputies, to various legal requirements, one of the chief of which is that all elections shall have been completed before the meeting of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, sitting as a National Assembly, to elect a President of the Republic. The date of the meeting of the National Assembly is January 17, 1920. It seems probable that the election of Deputies will be given precedence, in which case the municipal elections may be expected to take place on or about November 2, with second ballotings on November 9; those of the general and arrondissement councils on November 16, with second ballotings on November 23; and Senatorial elections on December 14.

The chronology of a French election, while at first view apparently somewhat complicated, is in reality simple. Where, as in the United States, the tendency is marked to elect as many different classes of officials as possible on the same date, in France the different classes of elections are kept distinct. The decree regarding Senatorial elections, for example, must be published six weeks in advance, and an interval of at least a month must elapse between the choice of municipal councils and the choice of Senators. The Senate, being a permanent body, is of course renewed only in part. The date for the meeting of the new Parliament is January 13, 1920, one month after the election of Senators; and as the two Houses, when they meet together as a National Assembly on January 17 to choose the President, must each be fully constituted, and as the President of the Senate is the designated presiding officer of the National Assembly, an extraordinary session of Parliament may be summoned between December 14 and January 13 for the settlement of controversies over seats, in case the brief interval between January 13 and January 17 seems likely to be insufficient for that purpose.

Under the new electoral law of July 12 last, the coming election of Deputies will be held under the system known as the *scrutin de liste*. Under this system each elector will vote for as many candidates as there are Deputies to be chosen from the electoral area, and every candidate who receives an absolute majority of the votes cast will be elected. The basis of election is one Deputy for each 75,000 French inhabitants, or a major fraction of that number, in the Department, each Department, however, being accorded at least three Deputies. Each Department thus forms an electoral unit; but when the number of Deputies who would be chosen under the apportionment just mentioned exceeds six, the Department may be divided into electoral areas, each of which will choose at least three Deputies. From such subdivision the Departments in the devastated area of the North are excepted, but the question of extending the principle to cover those Departments is now under discussion in the Chamber. To the *scrutin de liste*, which replaces the former method known as the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, there has been added a scheme of proportional representation designed to insure some representation for minorities. The relative merits of election by *scrutin de liste* or *scrutin d'arrondissement* is an old story in France, as every student of French politics knows, and the debates on the law of July 12 were not productive of new arguments of importance. In this day of increased demand for direct popular control, however, there is obviously much to be said for a return to a system under which the candidate is less tempted than before to entangle himself in promises to electors for the sake of carrying a small constituency, and is left freer to devote himself to the larger interests of the country; while the adoption of proportional representation ought to help in producing a Chamber more truly representative of the numerous shades of opinion which characterize a country like France.

M. Alfred Capus, of the French Academy, writing in the Paris *Figaro*, expresses the opinion that a considerable proportion of the present members of the Chamber of Deputies will fail of reëlection. Chosen in 1914, he points out, on a platform which mingled pacifism with religious intolerance, and under the influence of M. Caillaux, the Chamber found itself suddenly confronted with a great war and with the consequent necessity of forming a political *union sacrée*. For the energy with which it devoted itself to the prosecution of the war there will be, it is to be hoped, no criticism during the approaching campaign; but the *union sacrée* has remained artificial and precarious, and even the war has not made the Chamber popular. Now that the war is over, and religion hardly an issue which any party will care to revive, and with M. Caillaux under a heavy cloud which shows no sign of lifting, France is faced with grave problems of internal reconstruction as well as of international relations. It will be a *poilus'* election, and the *poilu*, with a vivid experience behind him, but only the prospect of a desperate economic struggle ahead of him, is regarded as likely to demand representatives who have real principles for which they stand, who will not favor the continuance of war on the part of France in any part of the world, and who will show greater ability than the present Chamber has shown in grappling with the pressing questions of high prices, diminished production of manufactures, weakened commerce, and a colossal debt. Questions of economic and social reconstruction, in France as in the other victorious countries, insistently press for a prompt and satisfactory solution; and in France, as elsewhere, the weakness

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and incompetence of the old government for tasks of this kind is becoming rapidly apparent, now that popular attention is to an extent being withdrawn from international questions and fixed upon the problem of making a living.

Who will head the new Government and of what party elements it will be composed are questions which will come promptly to the fore as soon as the date of the election is announced. M. Clemenceau, whose capacity for work seems to suffer no diminution, is busy visiting the regions which have suffered directly from the war, thereby adding to his great personal popularity; but that he will care to head a new Ministry, even if he has a chance, is very doubtful. M. Briand, his most formidable competitor, continues to keep in the background and has not yet shown his hand. President Poincaré, it is announced, will offer himself for the Senate, but will not take an active part in politics beyond that, unless, perchance, a suitable Ministerial portfolio is offered to him. Of the more radical socialists, the one who appears to possess the largest powers of leadership is Marcel Cachin, a debater and writer of undoubted ability; but it is not at all certain that the ideas and methods for which he stands will predominate in the new Chamber. The war, with all the wealth of political and economic ideas which it has thrown to the surface, has been admittedly unproductive of leaders, and in France the field is open. It has been a common remark of late that the great socialist leader, Jaurès, the fifth anniversary of whose assassination has just been observed widely in France, left neither intellectual nor political successor. Men look vainly for a leader of intellect and political judgment sufficient to enable him to marshal the strong radical forces now at work.

It is too early to speak of programmes, or to forecast whether, as the result of the election, the hold of the political and social groups which are choking back the healthy development of France in almost every direction will be broken. The only platform which has thus far been put forward is that of the Radical and Radical Socialist party. In an address to the country, adopted on July 28, the party went on record as favoring all possible facilities for the personal acquisition of property; demanded the punishment of profiteers, the reduction of living costs, and the taxation of rents; urged a revision of the Constitution with particular reference to the reconstitution of the Senate and the attainment of greater decentralization; called for free and universal public education and an increase in the number of professional schools; and cautiously favored a reduction of the military establishment and a modification of the conditions of military service in accordance with the limitations required by the League of Nations. This is, on the whole a conservative programme. It will not be surprising if, as the election approaches, the moderate parties show a tendency to combine forces in the hope of thereby the better combating extreme radicalism and so-called Bolshevism. A writer in the *Temps* has lately pointed out that the various Centre parties, whose candidates received 2,961,025 votes in 1914, have jointly a greater voting strength in the country than any other party, and that a national republican union is something to be thought of. I content myself with observing that such a union, if it were to come about, would be entirely in harmony with the tendency in all countries to group all the voters under two heads, the conservatives and the more or less extreme radicals, and that there is no reason why France should be an exception to the rule.

WILLIAM MACDONALD

II. Jewish Freedom in Poland

(By a Special Correspondent)

Warsaw, June 15

THE longer I stay in Middle Europe the more convinced I become of the general insanity which has seized upon the mind of man. Five years of war have taught the peoples of the new nationalities nothing. And *per contra* they have forgotten a great deal. The Poles at the present time are engaged in doing to their Jews and their Ruthenians and their Lithuanians what the Germans and the Russians did to them. A universal pogrom covers the whole of Poland from Vilna to Lwow and Cracow.

The Poles are conducting two regular and old-fashioned wars for imperialistic conquest while the Peace Conference is engaged in its work. I have been near the two fronts of both these wars. I was in Lwow and saw what was happening and had happened there. I was in Vilna and know what is happening there. In Vilna I had the extraordinary pleasure of being surrounded by a crowd of weeping and wailing Jewish women whose husbands had been murdered as soon as Vilna was occupied by the Poles. I know now what the Greeks felt like when they occupied Troy. In one house where dwelt the family Philipson and others, the soldiers came and carried off all the men folk, beat them up with the jeering crowd following, took them out of the city, and shot them. Then, in true antique fashion, young Philipson, the son, was made to dig a grave for his father and brother and the other men in this particular house. This procedure of taking harmless people out and shooting them was practiced extensively by the Poles in Vilna when they entered in triumph after having driven out the handful of Bolsheviki who held the town against them. The killed seem to have numbered about one hundred. The people beaten up and maltreated numbered many hundreds. Respectable citizens, among them the most respected Jew in the city, were taken out and stood against a wall and threatened with death. Twelve hundred Jews have been jailed and are said to be starving to death and dying of typhus. Their friends and relatives are not allowed to bring them food or medical help. Hundreds have been deported to Bialystock and Cracow and elsewhere and are being held on the vague charge of Bolshevism. On the north front the way to get rid of your minority is by accusing it of Bolshevism. Yet many of the Poles themselves who are now holding jobs in the Vilna Government were fighting with the Bolsheviki.

But I find I am writing with a certain amount of bile. There is no reason why I should, since I can have my whipped cream and butter and white bread and roast beef and *hors d'œuvres* and everything else I want every day, served with the piquant sauce of the knowledge that a few blocks away children are starving for want of a little milk, that hundreds of children in Warsaw over seven years of age are unable to stand on their feet—have never walked because they have not had proper nourishment. The imperialistic Polish bourgeoisie is not interested in the misery of its poor and only makes feeble motions toward establishing relief agencies under pressure of the Americans. Perhaps I am violating a trade secret when I inform your Polish readers, who so trustingly paid for the half of the Westward Ho cargo of food which was to go to the starving population of Poland, that most of this cargo went to

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the Polish army. I may be violating a similar secret when I inform your Jewish readers that their half of this cargo could not be given to the starving Jews because, in most centres, the authorities pointed out the very interesting fact that pogroms would result if Jews got food and Christians did not.

Polish culture is beginning to prevail in Galicia. While I was sitting in a conference in Lwow, the burnt-off Jewish quarter—burnt off at the express command of the Polish commandant—a result of Polish culture was brought directly to my notice. An old patriarchal Jew came rushing into the room, the blood streaming down his beard. The populace had just been indulging in that highest form of culture known now to the countrymen of Mickiewic and Chopin, beard-pulling. Another evidence of Polish culture that I saw while in Lwow was the Jewish cemetery, where the Haller troops had pastured their horses on the graves of soldiers fallen during the war, and where they had been engaged in the refined pastime of desecrating graves and destroying monuments. Another evidence of Polish culture was to be found in the robbery of the biggest jewelry shop in Lwow, owned by a Jew. The shop was robbed in broad daylight by our protégés, Haller's troops. It was the second time they had cleaned out this particular shop. The Jewish press was not permitted to refer to the robbery as having been perpetrated by the soldiers. I may say in passing that I want to be perfectly fair to that model of all the military virtues, General Haller. After his army had been doing damage in Galicia, West and East, for weeks, he finally issued an order against lawlessness on the part of his troops. The next day, in fact the day after I was in Cracow, some of these Hallerchiks, as they are called, started a merry little pogrom in Cracow and killed a few of their Jewish fellow-citizens. Since they had already done this sort of thing in Rzseshow, Kolbushowa, in fact in about fifty other Galician towns, nobody was surprised except by the coincidence.

I do not, however, wish to write with any animus against the Poles. I think they are in the toils of a horrible fatality. They have perfect confidence in their own power to exterminate their various minorities—those of long standing, like the Jews, and those of recent acquisition, like the Lithuanians, the Ruthenians, and others. They do not even fear a plébiscite in Lithuania. I shall explain this phenomenon extraordinary. The plébiscite our good President thinks of will not be a real plébiscite, but only a formality. The real plébiscite is being held in Lithuania at the present time. This plébiscite consists in letting the native population know what will happen to them if they vote the wrong way. Those thousands of people in Vilna's crawling jails constitute an apt illustration and warning of what will happen to the rest of the population in case the plébiscite goes wrong. And then the example of Lwow shows what happens to people who guess wrong.

I think the Lwow experience might deserve a rather longer exposition. The Lwow Jews last November and December, when the contest for the possession of Lwow was taking place between the Poles and the Ruthenians, looked about them and reached certain conclusions. They saw that the Jews all over middle Europe had been making mistakes by taking sides with one party or another. They saw, for instance, how terribly "stung" the Czecho-Slovak Jews had been who had been Austrian patriots or Magyar friends. They therefore decided to remain neutral during the contest for Lwow. And, in their innocence, they hung out placards in the Jewish quarter to that effect. When the Poles entered Lwow and finally captured it, they showed the Jews what it meant to remain neutral at such a critical time, with the result that the Jewish quarter was destroyed and a great number of Jews killed. This pogrom against neutrality still continues in Lwow. If you wear a uniform, the women cringe away from you in the streets, and the little children run for shelter.

At this rate the Vilna Jews and the Lithuanians will be careful neither to be neutral nor to oppose the Poles. I know how the Jews of Vilna feel, because they told me. If they have anything like a free choice, they will vote against the Poles. They told me that they preferred the old Czardom to the Polish rule. What they hope to get if they have a free choice is a sort of confederation of Lithuania with part of White Russia, so as to make a good-sized practicable state which will have close connections with a federated Russia of the near future. But the Poles are working ahead on their plans for capturing the plébiscite. They have just created a greater Vilna, taking in a whole lot of Polish districts, so that the Jewish vote shall be correspondingly diminished. They are about to hold a municipal election. They have decreed that in this election only persons speaking Polish may vote. Most of the Jews and Lithuanians cannot speak Polish. Hence you will have a majority for the Poles, even if the military does not "cook" the election. Then they will say to the Allies that Vilna, even in a local election, is overwhelmingly Polish. Another triumph for culture!

And over all this madness broods the terrible face of Lenin, smiling out of the Russian distance like a waxing Cheshire cat.

In the Driftway

WE are hearing a good deal just now of the actor's wrongs, but far too little has been said of one of his afflictions from which not even the Equity can afford him relief, the stupidity of his audiences. The Drifter is moved to this observation by two performances of "John Ferguson" which he has attended within a few weeks, and from which he has come away profoundly depressed not by the play, but by the audience. He could not refrain from asking himself: are we really all like this all the time? Or, when we enter a theatre are we mysteriously beguiled of the measure of intelligence, taste, and natural feeling with which boon Nature has provided the meanest of us? He has had this experience before, of course, as everyone has. At Shaw plays he has seen the cleverest hits fail to score and the buffoonery cheered to the echo. "John Ferguson," he had thought, would have a kindlier fortune. Here was a play so profoundly sincere and so deeply reasoned, so poignantly revealing and so magnificently ordered—in a word so tragic—that not even the ordinary theatrical crowd could resist it. But he was wrong. They were present at both performances and behaved in character. When John Ferguson—the moral fabric of a lifetime crumbling about him—is for a moment tempted to shield his son from the penalty of his crime, they thought it funny. At Hannah's terrible cry "God's late!" on the receipt of the letter that would have saved her honor and her brother's life, if it had come in time, they laughed. When Jimmy Cæser lays bare

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his paltry soul—certainly one of the subtlest bits of analysis in modern drama—they deported themselves as at a Cohan *revue*.

* * * * *

SUCH an experience leads one to accept the statement of the learned that Elizabethan audiences really thought Shakespeare's madmen funny, though it does not conduce to a belief in the moral development of the species. It is incredible that serious actors ever become accustomed to this sort of thing. The acting of "John Ferguson" is to the last degree sincere. Its sincerity is shown, among other ways, by the immense improvement which it has undergone within a few weeks. What must these artists think of us? The most essential gift and the heaviest handicap that an actor can receive from Nature is a sixth sense that tells him when he has his house with him. What must be his state of mind as, night after night, he waits for the laugh that marks his moments of deepest intention? Is it any wonder that we have no stage? That plays like "John Ferguson" are as rare as Phœnixes? If this were a single experience, the Drifter would have concluded that it was accidental. But two such audiences at the same play are no accident. We do really check our decency at the door with our coats and sticks, though there may be another explanation, which the Drifter declines to entertain.

* * * * *

THE Drifter has been pondering somewhat on the changeable values of human life. We fling men away on the battlefield with scarcely a thought. Let an accident happen such as the calamities at St. Pierre, at San Francisco, or at Messina, or on the "Titanic," and the well-springs of pity overflow. Hearts and purses are freely given in the desire to help. But nowadays—well, the Drifter reads the utterly pathetic, the heart-rending stories from Budapest, now that the Rumanians are stealing what little food is left, and wonders why the whole world does not ring with protest against such frightful wrongs, as it did when Belgium was invaded. Are there really people who can read unmoved of mothers holding up their starving babies to Rumanian soldiers and offering handfuls of money in vain for a glass of milk? Are our sympathies so utterly exhausted? Again, the French have actually demanded a $220,000 indemnity from Germany for the life of a single French sergeant killed in Berlin. But an American court martial in Coblenz has merely sentenced to two years in prison an American soldier who killed a German civilian in cold blood. What is the value of a human life? The Drifter thinks we shall never reach the right valuation until we come to understand that all human life is inviolable and sacred beyond all else. Not until then will the Sixth Commandment really begin to be observed.

* * * * *

CROWDED and dirty and noisy as the lower end of Manhattan Island is, and tense as the nerves grow in the midst of the mighty pressure which exists there, it is in this very neighborhood, impelled perhaps by some vague instinct for compensation, that the spirit of American business has set up what seems to the Drifter its most lovely single monument—that radiant tower, tall as a mountain and yet clean and lithe as Diana, the Woolworth Building, which hourly snatches a million eyes away from their occupation and rushes with them up into the bright heaven, singing as truly as did ever minaret or spire or campanile.

THE DRIFTER

The New Crusaders

By WALDO R. BROWNE

(Written after reading recent dispatches from *The New York Times's* special correspondent with General Denikin's army of Don Cossacks, in its operations against the Bolsheviki of South Russia.)

YOU have heard perhaps that Cossacks are not models of decorum,
That they lack the finer graces and are short on *savoir faire*,
That their manners are more suited to the stable than the forum,
That they overlook ablutions and neglect their nails and hair.

You have read mayhap that Cossacks are inclined to be unruly,
That they sometimes break the Sabbath or remain out late at night,
That they now and then use swear-words or prevaricate unduly,
That when bolstered up with vodka they will even join a fight.

You've been told perchance that Cossacks are not always sympathetic,
Not so amiable and kindly as good Christians ought to be;
That their technique might be criticized as over-energetic,
When compelled to raid a meeting or to nab a refugee.

You have thought maybe that Cossacks are not wholly democratic—
That between the common people and the late-lamented Czar
Their devotion to the former seemed at times a bit erratic,
With the lash and lance and sabre too conspicuous by far.

Stuff and nonsense! Don't believe it! This is cruel, base aspersion,
Propaganda (German-fostered) of that wicked wretch Lenin;
Now at last the truth untainted issues in authentic version,
And we realize how blinded and deluded we have been.

Cossacks (see *The Times* dispatches) are in fact devout crusaders,
Paladins all pure and perfect, Bayards mild and lily-souled,
Of Man's holiest endeavor the abettors and the aiders,
Warriors of breed seraphic, in the strife with Hell enrolled.

So when on their sacred banner victory assumes its station,
When the last opposing peasant has been placed beneath the sod,
Let us join *The Times* in pæans, let us shout in jubilation,
That the world is safe for Cossacks—in His heaven still is God!

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Correspondence

Nathan Hale's Dramatic Interests

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Nathan Hale's dying exclamation, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country," has been deservedly admired; but it does not seem to be recognized that this is probably an adaptation from Addison's "Cato" (Act 4, Scene 4), where Cato, meeting the corpse of his son Marcus, exclaims:

"How beautiful is death when caused by virtue!
Who would not be that youth? *What pity is it*
That we can die but once to serve our country!"

It is not surprising that Hale should have been familiar with this passage. The performance of "Cato" at Philadelphia, in August, 1749, marked the beginning of American dramatic history (Seilhamer, "Hist. Amer. Theatre" 1. 2), though it is said to have been presented by collegians at Williamsburg, Virginia, as early as 1736 (*ibid.* 1. 39); it was produced at New York in 1750, 1762, and 1768; again at Philadelphia in 1767; and at Charleston on May 11, 1774 (*ibid.* 1. 34, 130, 136, 163, 224, 334). Washington, as a young man, wrote to Sally Fairfax from the frontier that he would enjoy playing Juba to such a Marcia as she must make (Ford, "The True George Washington," p. 91), and it is said that his favorite quotation was Addison's ("Cato," Act 1, Scene 2) "'Tis not in mortals to command success" (Ford, p. 204).

That Hale was of a literary turn may be inferred from the fact that, as a lad, he was fond of reading out of school (Johnston, "Nathan Hale," revised edition, p. 13); that in his young manhood he wrote verses (*ibid.*, pp. 59, 74-6, 186-191): that on May 10, 1774, his brother writes of making arrangements to send him from home Pope's translation of the "Iliad" (*ibid.*, p. 197); and that in February, 1776, Timothy Dwight credited him with fondness for the liberal arts (*ibid.*, p. 217). Dramas were included in his reading in the early part of 1775, if we may judge from the letter of a friend (*ibid.*, p. 199) who supposes him to be deep in either history, *plays*, novels, or romances only a minute before his school opened at nine in the morning. About this time, under the influence of Dwight, then tutor at Yale, plays seem to have come into vogue, for one of the older alumni told President Stiles that the students had left the more solid parts of learning, and run into plays and dramatic exhibitions, thus turning the college into Drury Lane (Stiles, "Literary Diary" 2. 230; Simeon E. Baldwin, "Life and Letters of Simeon Baldwin," p. 24). While Hale was still in college—he graduated in September, 1773, at the age of 18—Linonia, the literary society to which he belonged, brought out Farquhar's "Beaux' Stratagem" (1707), Steele's "Conscious Lovers" (1722), Dodsley's "Toy Shop" (1735), and Cumberland's "West Indian" (1771), the last-named being acted on April 3, 1773; and in the first and third of these, at least, Hale took a part (Johnston, p. 32), and, according to his biographer, "with *éclat*."

It has been conjectured (Goad, "Horace in the English Literature of the Eighteenth Century," pp. 34, 323) that the original of Cato's sentiment was Horace's "Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori"; but this may be impossible to determine. At all events, it is on record that Hale uttered this line at Dr. Munson's in New Haven in the spring of 1775 (Johnston, p. 70).

Yale University, June 22 ALBERT STANBURROUGH COOK

Democracy in the Washington Schools

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In line with your general advocacy of the spread of democracy in education as well as in other relations of our life, the Board of Education of Washington, D. C., recently took a long step toward that goal in the public-school system here. It authorized the formation of a teachers' council, consisting of twenty-four members, all but three to be elected by the teachers from among themselves. This council is to sit in conference with the Board at least four times yearly to consider financial matters and questions of general policy. The Board thus sweeps away all barriers between the highest authority and the humblest member of the ranks, as even the janitors and sweeps will have representatives. It is safe to say that every college and university faculty in this country would heartily welcome such a face-to-face attitude between the board of trustees and the employees of the institution. It is easy to foresee trouble. The racial issue may raise its ugly head, as there are really two systems here, and the children of whites and blacks go to entirely different schools. Again, all grades of teachers, differing markedly in education and salary, are brought together on a footing of equality. The final decision is left where it has always been, however, in the hands of the Board of Education.

Washington, D. C., July 27 C. MERIWETHER

The Fate of College Teachers of German

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that the war is over and the racial animosities incident thereto are a thing of the past, I wish to call attention to the commendable example of Heidelberg University, at Tiffin, Ohio, in doing what it could to meet a difficult situation and relieve distress. As is well known, the moment our Government broke off diplomatic relations with Germany, there was set on foot a strong propaganda against the teaching of German in our educational institutions. The result was that many teachers of German found themselves without positions. One such case occurred at our State university, where the enrolment in the German courses dwindled to almost nothing, and the instructional force had therefore to be curtailed. Instead of giving these teachers employment in other departments of the university, which they had served so faithfully, the administrative officials unsympathetically turned them adrift. Quite different was the conduct of Heidelberg. Learning of the predicament of the discharged German teachers of Indiana University, it invited one of them, an associate professor, to become a professor in its department of English, where he has served so well during the past year that he has even been promoted. Surely this is an example that more of our great educational institutions might follow, especially now that the war is over.

Bloomington, Ind., August 8 A. W. B.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not indicative of the nature of this world peace that of all enemy aliens, the teacher finds himself in the most difficult situation, precisely on account of his international mission and character? As I am convinced that the following account is typical of the experience of many of my colleagues, I should be grateful to *The Nation* for giving it publicity.

I came to this country in 1908 and taught German at the University of Wisconsin for nine years, rising from the rank of an instructor to that of an associate professor. Politically rather indifferent, and yet feeling that I did not wish to become an American without having seen my own country again, I deferred naturalization until a semester's leave spent in Germany should have made me sure of my intentions. Then, in 1914, the war broke out. This not only effectively prevented a return, but raised many new problems. The fine liberal spirit of the institution, manifest in its administration, faculty, and students alike, enabled me to retain my position for six months after America entered the war, when an indiscretion on my own part, in the atmosphere of an excited general public, compelled my resignation. For the following two years I took pride and pleasure in making a scant living out of jobs of every kind, gardening, carpentering, house-painting, plumbing, electric wiring, furnace-tending, metal etching, sign-painting, etc., con-

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fident that the return of peace would make it possible for me to put my long years' training and experience in modern language instruction to better account here or on the other side of the ocean. I was much mistaken. Public opinion will not countenance my teaching the language of my own country, nor that of its supposed arch-enemy (France), even if I be ready to become a citizen of the United States. Turning to other fields of activity and anxious to contribute my own little share towards reconstruction—towards any work promoting international understanding, any movement afoot which strives to make this country the place for a better, freer, more democratic type of society, both politically and economically—I found that, as a newly made citizen no less than as an alien enemy, I should only compromise those movements through active participation. Thus, business and farming seemed to be the only fields open to a man of my description; but, since I have always regarded love for my work as the determining factor in the choice of a position and money as only the embarrassing incident, I could not find the necessary spiritual incentive in either field, and should, besides, have had to consider the greater part of my previous training as wasted.

Hence I came to the conclusion that there is really no place for me in this country and I resolved to go back to Germany. I had no sooner made up my mind than friends and relatives from across the ocean begged me not to return, as there was neither food, nor lodging, nor work, nor any vacancies to be filled in the teaching profession, for Germany will probably be unable to carry out her programme of educational democratization on account of the peace which is to make the world safe for democracy. And now on top of it all I find that I cannot even go to see with my own eyes whether the old country has any use for me; for the American Government, assuredly itself not without responsibility for the suspicion and hatred against all Germans and everything German, refuses to permit me to leave by denying passports to enemy aliens.

Madison, Wis., July 30 ERNST FEISE

Fashionable Cacoëpy

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Without a doubt, the language of an average American is purer than that of an Englishman, and it is a well-known fact that many expressions sneered at by the arrogant Cockney as Americanisms are in reality ancient phrases which have survived in the United States while they have become extinct or rare in England. It is therefore really distressing to a cultivated Briton visiting America to find people there who use these good old words deprecatingly or follow what they suppose to be the latest London mannerism, regardless of accuracy. Thus we find one literary editress advocating the pedantic British pronunciation *tomahto* in lieu of the good English *tomato*, rhyming with *potato*, saying it sounds so much more "refined." I do not know whether she would be of the same opinion if she heard one of our costermongers bawling out: "'Ere's yer foine termarters, lydy, hownly tuppence a pahnd." Similarly we sometimes hear Anglomaniac Americans saying *vahz* for *vase*. Why not also *bahz*, and *cahz?*

As in England, though not so frequently, Americans like to show their superiority by using French words—usually misspelt or misused—where the meaning can be perfectly well given in plain English. Thus the old-established *crape, clientele, plebiscite, recounter*, are now supplanted by words with a quasi-French pronunciation or spelling, while others which might and should be anglicized, such as *debris, detour, role, revery, comradery, regime, cortege, prestige, mirage, massage, garage, impass, naïvety, envelope, misalliance, depot*, still retain their exotic dress (though the last in real French is *dépôt, not depôt*), while *moral* (better *mettle* or *fettle*) appears as *morale*, which really means ethics. Americans are right in their aspirating of *hotel, hospital, hostler*, and Britons in *herb, humble, humor*. Indeed there are only four words in the language which are not aspirated, *hour, heir, honor, honest* (and of course their derivatives); in all others the *h* should be sounded.

Americans had the credit of first popularizing the good word *employee*, but strangely enough, in deference to British conservatism, afterwards rejected it for the unpronounceable *employé* (used even of females). Yet later on, the former gained ground in Britain, where it is now almost universal!

It is earnestly to be hoped that in all cases where American spelling, pronunciation, or usage is demonstrably the more nearly correct, it will continue to be followed, though in cases where the British method is superior, that should be adopted. Let every case be tried on its merits without prejudice one way or the other.

Croydon, England, July 15 EVACUSTES A. PHIPSON

American and Mexican Universities

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The wholesome attitude shown by *The Nation* towards the Mexican situation leads me to think that the following item might interest your readers. The college commencements of this year were everywhere of unusual importance, coming after months of upheaval and stress such as the academic world has never known before. This is true of the commencement held last June at the University of Arizona, having, as it did, a note of international amity. An honored guest of the occasion was Dr. José Macias, of the National University of Mexico, upon whom was conferred the degree of LL.D. President Macias, in an address before the University, outlined his policy for the reorganization of the National University of Mexico. He explained his endeavors to make it an institution which shall train for citizenship—the contribution which he feels is the strongest made by the universities of the States. His chief emphasis, however, was upon the need of progressive organization. The ability of the Americans to "speed up" when necessary, and their skill at all times in coöperative effort, he attributed to our educational system. From Arizona he visited the universities of California as well as some in the East. Since the newspapers give the impression that all is turmoil between Mexico and the States, it may be of general interest to know of this visit, and further to hear that it was preceded by one of like character on the part of the President of the University of Arizona to the University of Mexico, where he was received with great hospitality and honor. In the educational world, at least, amicable relations are being maintained between the Republics.

Tucson, July 19 ESTELLE LUTRELL

Lawlessness of Soldiers and Sailors

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The press of New York is unconsciously rendering the schools a great disservice. We teachers are preaching to our pupils incessantly that American democracy is a democracy of law, enforced by officers of the law according to principles of duly established justice; that the people have the power to modify this law and this practice by due process, likewise prescribed by law; and we seek to illustrate this by concrete examples from daily experience. With this ideal we contrast the erroneous belief, held by an insignificant minority of our population, that group-action contrary to law is justified when there is a strong personal conviction of right. It happens that the pupils predisposed to take the anti-social view are also sharp thinkers, who question and put to proof every assertion made by those who attempt to guide them. How then can we square our teaching as to the nature and function of democratic government with actual practice, when the press condones, with half humorous indulgence, the lawless acts and practices of bodies of soldiers and sailors who defy and set at naught the

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fundamental principles of our Government? It is natural to be lenient with those who attack individuals we do not like; but is such leniency sound policy? Today a "council" of sailors and soldiers, with a certain degree of moderation, decides to interfere with the assembly of an unpopular minority. What assurance have we that tomorrow it may not decide to interfere with meetings of an educational or religious nature not to the liking of some individual who at the time is able to inflame the minds of a promiscuous military gathering? And how long may we expect the offices and plants of an unpopular press to be immune from attack? In what respect do the European soviets of soldiers and sailors that we hear so much about differ from the "councils" of our city? Let us teach our pupils that in America not even the meanest criminal is outside the protection of law, and that anyone who denies him such protection is an enemy of society, no matter how pure he may deem his motives to be.

New York, July 20 A TEACHER

Static Education

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The tragic and fatuous Prussianizing of our school children reminds me of the motto from an "Old Play" that heads a chapter of Scott's "The Monastery":

> You call this education, do you not?
> Why, 'tis the forced march of a herd of bullocks
> Before a shouting drover. The glad van
> Move on at ease, and pause a while to snatch
> A passing morsel from the dewy greensward.
> While all the blows, the oaths, the indignation
> Fall on the croupe of the ill-fated laggard
> That cripples in the rear.

As the Preacher says: "The thing that hath been, it is that which shall be . . . and there is no new thing under the sun."

Whippany, N. J., July 27 ALBERT FARR

Orphan Children of Serbia

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By official estimate there are in Serbia 60,000 full orphans and 300,000 half orphans. At the present time 1,400 of these children are cared for in institutions. The others live with friends and relatives. There exists a national society, known as the Society for the Protection of Jugoslav Children, for the care of orphans. This society has headquarters at Belgrade, and has coöperated with the American Red Cross in the establishment and conduct of a model orphanage here. The society has branches in many cities, but its work is yet in the early stages. The directress of the Belgrade orphanage, Miss Clara Lewis, has cared for hundreds of Serbian children, of whom she speaks as follows:

"At the present time there are two hundred and fifty children in the orphanage, and nicer children never lived. They are much like our own, the good and mischievous, the lazy and industrious, but the really bad boy or girl is very rare. War conditions have made them a wild lot, but the good solid foundation is there, and it is interesting to watch the better qualities that begin to develop very soon after their arrival. They come in with a combined scared and furtive look on their little faces. Soon they lose this, and out comes their natural self. Their desire to please, to be helpful, is very gratifying and their longing for school and books is almost pathetic. They would as soon miss their dinner as one of their classes. They are remarkably intelligent. Nothing is too difficult to memorize, even for the little ones. They are well worth every effort made in their behalf, for in them lies the possibility of a very great nation."

Belgrade, Serbia, June 23 HARRY W. FRANTZ

Art

A Lordon Art Dealer

IF, during his lifetime, the name of Murray Marks was known only to the few, it will be remembered by the many because of the distinguished artists whom he claimed as friends. He was a London art dealer, never so prominent perhaps as the present princely firms of Fifth Avenue and Bond Street palaces, but a power and an influence in his way. A Jew, descended from an old Dutch family, he had the Jew's instinct for business; he was also a man of cultivation and taste—"his taste amounted to genius," Rossetti said. Artists believed in him, collectors relied on him, museum directors referred to him. He was associated with much that was most memorable in the Seventies and Eighties, decades of inexhaustible interest, however overshadowed at the moment by the Nineties. It was he who catered for the collectors of blue-and-white after Whistler had brought the love of it from Paris and set the fashion. His Oxford Street shop became a sumptuous rival of the modest little Madame Desoyes in the Rue de Rivoli, a meeting-place for the hunters of Hawthorn jars and "Long Elizas." It was he who compiled Sir Henry Thompson's catalogue of Nankin Porcelain, illustrated by Whistler, a book now as eagerly sought as it is hard to find. He was the adviser and agent of almost all the great contemporary collectors, from Huth to Salting. He was in close relations with Leyland, "The Liverpool Medici," presiding over the decorations of the house in Prince's Gate, regretting to the last the sacrifice of one part of his approved scheme to the greater splendors of the Peacock Room. He commissioned pictures from Rossetti, Sandys, and Burne-Jones. He was called in as an expert by the Government, was summoned to Windsor for advice, bought for the Victoria and Albert Museum, figured as a witness on matters of art in the law courts, assisted in the compilation of Pierpont Morgan's catalogue of Renaissance bronzes, and was the cause of one of the most bitter art controversies of recent years. For it was Murray Marks who sold to Dr. Bode, for the Berlin Museum, the famous wax bust catalogued as a Leonardo by Dr. Bode, and attributed by critics, who had never seen it, to the obscure modern English sculptor, Lucas. Marks had gone no further than to declare it an Italian work of the Renaissance. In this belief he continued to the end, and artists who have seen the bust in Berlin are of his opinion. Altogether, his business life was so active that the story of it, well told, would prove a suggestive commentary on many of the principal art events and movements of the time.

Marks seems to have had an equally profitable talent for friendship. The artists he commissioned and the customers who commissioned him became his friends. He began by being of use to Rossetti and Whistler, to Sandys, to that grim derelict Simeon Solomon, Burne-Jones, Leighton, Millais, and he ended by being on more or less intimate terms with them. And so it happened with Huth, Leyland, Salting—all the collectors whom he first drew to him simply because of his knowledge and intelligence as dealer. The record of his friendship alone might be of immense value, and vastly entertaining to all who care for the arts or for interesting human beings.

But Dr. G. C. Williamson, author of a biography just published in London under the title "Murray Marks and his Friends (John Lane), was bewildered, evidently overpowered by this wealth of material. Murray Marks emerges from his pages a pale shadowy figure, and the friends, of whom it was arranged that more should be said than of Marks himself, are scarcely less shadowy. Of almost all much has already been written—many biographies published, letters collected, old scandals revived, old fights re-fought—and Dr. Williamson has used the authorities more diligently than is explained by the few words of thanks in his "Acknowledgments" and occasional references

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in the text. He tells one or two stories that we do not remember to have heard; he includes several letters from Rossetti and Whistler that we do not remember to have read elsewhere. But he adds nothing to our knowledge of any one of the group, gives us no fresh impression of their personality or their work, and does not show them to us clearly from a dealer's point of view, which might have been amusing. He even misses their most salient characteristics. Whistler's wit seems blunted; Rossetti's charm evaporates; Sandys is no longer the superb, but the sordid; of Simeon Solomon nothing is left save the degenerate; Burne-Jones disappears in quoted descriptions of his pictures; Charles Augustus Howell actually, and for the first time, becomes a bore. It might be thought impossible to be dull in writing of Howell, the picturesque scamp, trusted in turn by Ruskin, Swinburne, Rossetti, Whistler, swindling them in turn and carrying it off with such gay effrontery that Whistler never quite lost a tenderness for his memory, though Swinburne raged, as we have just been reminded in his published letters. But Dr. Williamson achieves the impossible, and the long chapter on Howell is his dullest.

There are signs of haste, mistakes hard to overlook. The account of Sir Henry Thompson's catalogue is elaborate, and yet the illustrations and cover are inaccurately described. The title of Whistler's caricature of Leyland is not "The Gold *Scale*." Whistler's blue-and-white, with his silver, was shown at the Fine Art Society's before, not after, his death. It is some few years since the "Rosa Corder" ceased to be Canfield's property. It is not *believed* that the Peacock Room is "likely to pass into the possession of the American nation after the decease of Mr. Freer"; it is already, by the gift of Mr. Freer, the nation's property. And we might point to other inaccuracies, some slight in themselves but inexcusable when the facts were so easily to be obtained. For example, it is sheer carelessness to tell us on one page that Simeon Solomon died in 1905 and a few pages further on to give the date as 1895; to assure us, that, when not sober, "he was not a fit companion for any one," and overleaf to tell us that he was "still a charming and attractive companion." Dr. Williamson's book, it seems, was a labor of love. He would have done greater honor to the memory of his friend, greater service to the student of one of the most important periods in the history of English art, had he taken enough time and pains to make it a model of care and study as well.

N. N.

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Drama

Lincoln and Brown

WHEN will some one write us a play about John Brown as honest and sincere as Mr. Drinkwater's "Abraham Lincoln"? Not to tell us anything about John Brown, but just to make us think about him, as this play makes us think about Lincoln. Perhaps Mr. Drinkwater would smile at this and say: "Didn't you see? My play was about John Brown. He came into the first scene and he marched right through to the end." That is true—so true that at times you feel that the unseen, marching soul of John Brown is the real hero of Mr. Drinkwater's play. You feel it there, hovering at Lincoln's side.

The poet has handled the John Brown *motif* with extraordinary effect, and yet with a curious indecision. I suspect that Mr. Drinkwater had not anticipated Brown when he decided to write a play about Lincoln. Brown naturally came along, and Mr. Drinkwater, being a wise dramatist, did not turn him out, nor ignore him, but hospitably let him into the story. Yet, no matter how hospitable you may be, an unbidden guest is likely to make you uncomfortable. Mr. Drinkwater is plainly interested in Brown, and yet timid about him. Perhaps he did not know quite what to think about Brown, or rather he did not know what Lincoln thought about him. Mr. Cuffney of Springfield was similarly perplexed:

> I could never make Abraham out rightly about old John. One couldn't stomach slaving more than the other, yet Abraham didn't hold with the old chap standing up against it with the sword. Bad philosophy, or something, he called it. Talked about fanatics who do nothing but get themselves at a rope's end.

Mr. Stone, another of Lincoln's neighbors, tries to explain:

> Abraham's all for the Constitution. He wants the Constitution to be an honest master. There's nothing he wants like that. . . . He'd give his life to persuade the State against slaving, but until it is persuaded and makes its laws against it, he'll have nothing to do with violence in the name of laws that aren't made. That's why old John's raiding affair stuck in his gullet.

Mr. Cuffney persists:

> He was a brave man, going like that, with a few zealous like himself, and a handful of niggers, to free thousands.
> *Mr. Stone:* He was. And those were brave words when they took him out to hang him: "I think, my friends, you are guilty of a great wrong against God and humanity. You may dispose of me very easily, I am nearly disposed of now. But this question is still to be settled—this Negro question, I mean. The end of that is not yet." I was there that day. . . . There was a colonel there giving orders. When it was over, "So perish all foes of the human race," he called out. But only those that were afraid of losing their slaves believed it.
> *Mr. Cuffney:* It was a bad thing to hang a man like that. There's a song they've made about him. (*He sings quietly.*)

So John Brown is in the air as Lincoln makes his entrance. "Ay, John Brown," he says. "But that's not the way it's to be done. And you can't do the right thing the wrong way. That's as bad as the wrong thing, if you're going to keep the State together."

Mr. Drinkwater seems to drop Brown with that. Yet in a later act, with the war in its second weary year, he makes an effective curtain with off-stage music, and an unseen crowd passing the White House singing:

> John Brown's body lies a mould'ring in the grave,
> But his soul goes marching on.

No further mention of Brown. But Mr. Drinkwater keeps him in mind and remembers Lincoln's verdict, somewhat uneasily, I suspect. In order to "keep the State together," Lincoln has used the force he denied Brown the right to use in order to free the slaves. Has not Drinkwater's Lincoln, though still refusing approval, revised his judgment of Brown in the words with which he justifies the Emancipation Proclamation? "My

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duty, it has seemed to me, has been to be loyal to a principle, and not to betray it by expressing it in action at the wrong time. That is what I conceive statesmanship to be." Two years of war had accustomed Lincoln, if they had not reconciled him, to the use of force. But Lincoln was too honest to imagine that his war in defence of the Constitution and the Union was intrinsically more righteous than Brown's crusade for freedom.

There have been two notable cases of direct action in American history. Both were followed by wars in defence and vindication of the principles which they expressed. Yet the two incidents stand on oddly different planes in the popular judgment. The Boston Tea Party, a wanton violation of law and private property, is proudly related for the edification of American children by elders who abhor a labor strike as a deed of criminal anarchy. But while Boston Harbor shines under a halo, Harper's Ferry rests under a cloud. Long after the North has forgiven the firing on Fort Sumter, and has come to think of the Rebellion as the spirited enterprise of gallant Southern gentlemen, even though it fought a war to prove those gentlemen traitors, it still views John Brown and his raiders as highly disreputable, if slightly picturesque, disturbers of the peace. John Brown was our greatest direct actionist. We hanged him and straightway made a song about his soul. We fought a war in defence of his principles. He broke the law and spilt some blood in the name of human freedom. Later Lincoln, in the midst of flowing blood, violated the Constitution in the name of the same freedom. What makes the distinction between the great statesman and the lawless agitator? Lincoln's definition of statesmanship, as given by Mr. Drinkwater, seems to supply the prevailing standard: "Not to betray principle by expressing it in action at the wrong time." By this token, the mere hopelessness of Brown's endeavor made it criminal; and, similarly, the Rebellion, by being so nearly successful, achieved respectability. But this is the doctrine that might makes right, which men have sought to disprove in the mightiest of all wars. There seems something so utterly illogical in the use of material force for spiritual ends that the mere presence of war and violence bewilders men's judgment and turns all definition and conclusion into paradox. *Sic semper tyrannis*, cried the mad assassin, killing Lincoln with a pistol. "So perish all foes of the human race," cried the mad soldier, hanging Brown with a rope. We call it statesmanship not to express principle in action at the wrong time; but we exalt to heroic martyrdom those whose fault and merit consist in having done that very thing. We damned Brown, the lawless raider, and canonized Brown, the heroic martyr. Our most stirring national song proclaims his triumphant immortality. At Lincoln's death the final curtain drops on Stanton's words: "Now he belongs to the ages." Which is what we sing about John Brown's soul.

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Grey, Zane. Tales of Fishes. Harpers. $2.50.
Hendrick, Ellwood. Percolator Papers. Harpers. $1.75.
Long, William J. How Animals Talk. Harpers. $3.
Mr. Dooley on Making a Will and Other Necessary Evils. Scribners. $1.35.

FICTION

Cannan, Gilbert. Mummery. Doran. $1.50.
Dudley, J. Lawrence. Spriggles. Appleton. $1.50.
Laselle, Mary A. (Editor) Short Stories of the New America. Holt. $1.35.
Wodehouse, Pelham G. Their Mutual Child. Boni & Liveright. $1.60.

THE WAR

Addison, James T. The Story of the First Gas Regiment. Houghton Mifflin. $3.
Dennett, Carl P. Prisoners of the Great War. Houghton Mifflin. $1.50.
Djuvara, Mircea. La Guerre Roumaine 1916-1918. Paris: Berger-Levrault.

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The Payment of American Teachers

By E. S. EVENDEN

THE discovery of the American public schools by the American people may be said to be one of the results of the war. As a people, most of us knew that we had public schools, but it took the unusual demands of the war to make us nationally conscious of the work which those schools had done, in some respects very well, of the many things which they had not done, and of their tremendous potentiality for future development and social stability. We found that instead of the 5,000,000 illiterates we were supposed to have, one-fifth or more of our adult population, as indicated by tests in the army, could neither write a letter nor read a newspaper. We found that on the basis of physical examination 30 per cent. of the registrants in the draft were physically incapable of rendering general military service. We became conscious when selecting leaders that only about one pupil in ten completes the high school, and only about one in a hundred graduates from college. We became aware that over 4,000,000 children were being taught by teachers less than 21 years of age, with little or no high school training, and with no professional preparation for their work. Only about 25 per cent. of the teachers of the country are professionally prepared to the extent of two years' professional training beyond the completion of a high school course. We found, moreover, that even with the existing low standards there was an actual shortage of teachers at the beginning of the year to the number of 50,000, after 120,000 positions had been filled by "emergency teachers." These conditions are not all due to the work of the schools in the past, but the work of the schools for the future is directly concerned with each of them—not only with them, but also with most of the social, political, and economic elements of our civilization which are undergoing or demanding readjustment.

The leaders of the National Education Association realized that the teacher is by far the most important factor in the efficiency of the schools, and that the salary paid the teacher is in turn the most important factor in her efficiency. In order to assist in the betterment of teachers' salaries, an exhaustive study of the salaries and living expenses of teachers throughout the United States was undertaken by the Association. Under the guidance of its President, Dr. G. D. Strayer, I was permitted to conduct this investigation, the most important results of which are given here for the first time. (The complete report will appear soon as a special report of the National Education Association.)

Early in February, 1919, a blank was sent to city and county superintendents, selected at random from places of all sizes and from all sections of the country, asking for information relative to the salaries actually paid teachers, the number of teachers leaving during the year, the schedules of salaries in operation, the standards of preparation set, and the cost of living. At the same time a blank was sent to be filled out by individual teachers, asking for information in greater detail on the above items over a period of two years. The replies received from 423 city superintendents are truly representative of city conditions over the entire country, since cities of all sizes in all sections of the country are represented. (Only 10 of the replies were from county superintendents and involved so few teachers that the conditions of the rural communities are not indicated by the findings of this study.) Fifteen thousand of the blanks to be filled out by individual teachers were returned and are almost as representative of the entire country as the other list. In order to make the results more usable, the cities were grouped into six groups according to size, and five according to geographical location.[1]

From tabulations of the actual salaries received by teachers during 1918-19 the following median[2] salaries were found:

Group	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Total
Elementary	$936	$889	$866	$774	$677	$693	$856
Intermediate ...	1,226	1,007	1,047	943	775	738	951
High School....	1,513	1,288	1,242	1,097	944	918	1,224
All Schools	1,013	943	928	841	750	741	917

From these medians it is seen that teachers in the elementary schools in our cities receive a salary of $856. The median salaries decrease rapidly as the size of the city decreases. If this decrease is continued down to the small out-of-the-way rural school the salary diminishes also until it becomes as low as $7.50 per week for a school year of six months—an annual salary of $180 for the teacher who presides over that particular "cradle of democracy." The Commissioner of Education has given the average salary for all teachers in the United States in 1918 as $630.64. This means that considerably more than half of the 750,000 teachers in the country are receiving less than that amount.

When the salaries are distributed with regard to geographical location, we see the wide variation which exists between sections in the matter of teachers' salaries:

Group	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Elementary	$823	$773	$807	$961	$1,132	$856
Intermediate	999	832	889	962	1,000	951
High School.....	1,139	1,036	1,107	1,273	1,559	1,224
All Schools.....	869	794	871	1,015	1,187	917

From these median salaries it is clear that the cities in the Southern States pay noticeably the lowest salaries in all branches of school work. They would be much lower even than these if the salaries reported had in all cases included the colored teachers, whose salaries are generally less than half as much as those paid white teachers in the same communities. The highest salaries are paid in the cities of the extreme West. This is true as groups are compared, but not necessarily true of individual cities. New York city, for instance, ranks first among American cities

[1] Size group I, cities with population over 100,000
" " II, " " " between 50,000 and 100,000
" " III, " " " " 25,000 " 50,000
" " IV, " " " " 10,000 " 25,000
" " V, " " " " 5,000 " 10,000
" " VI, " " " below 5,000
Geographical group A, Me., Mass., N. H., N. J., N. Y., Pa., R. I., and Vt.
" " B, Ala., Ark., Del., D. C., Fla., Ga., Ky., La., Md., Miss., N. C., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va., and W. Va.
" " C, Ill., Ind., Mich., Ohio, and Wis.
" " D, Ia., Kan., Minn., Mo., Neb., N. D., Okla., and S. D.
" " E, Ariz., Cal., Col., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. M., Ore., Utah, Wash., and Wy.

[2] The median or mid-point is the point on the scale which divides the distribution exactly in half, one half of the cases falling below and the other half above. As a measure of central tendency the median is less influenced by the fewer places paying very high or very low salaries than other measures.

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in the median salary paid its high school teachers, $2,512, but it ranks seventh among the cities included in this study in the median salary paid its elementary teachers, $1,283. These salaries seem relatively high, and yet an examination of living conditions and other salaries paid in New York city makes them in reality relatively low. A study of the amounts earned in different occupations, from data obtained from a local New York city draft board, indicates that New York city pays its teachers on the same wage level as butchers, chauffeurs, store clerks, machinists, tailors, and waiters. The median amount of schooling in all these groups is considerably less than the completion of the eighth grade, while the median amount of schooling of the teachers is almost double that amount.*

There are certain other matters to be considered which will show how inadequate the salaries of teachers really are. These matters are the teacher's salary in relation to the cost of living and the teacher's salary in relation to the salaries paid other occupations.

The average salary for all teachers in the United States has increased 16 per cent. in the last five years. During the same time the price of all necessary commodities has practically doubled. As a consequence the teachers of America, poorly paid in 1914-15, find themselves only about half as well paid today as then, and this in the face of constantly increasing demands for additional preparation. Stated in other terms, the teacher who began teaching in 1914-15 finds that, as a reward for five years of public service, she has to solve this problem: I am paid a dollar for doing a piece of work; a kind public gives me 16 cents more, and then takes one-half of what I then have; how much do I receive for my work? This does not in any way exaggerate the generosity of the public in the matter of teachers' salaries. In the replies from the city superintendents it was found that 85 per cent. of the cities reporting grant an annual increase to elementary teachers of $50 or less. Of what value is such an increase when all of it and often more will be needed for the additional cost of room and board alone? How much additional "joy in her work" should a community expect from a teacher in return for the $18 and $20 increase to her annual salary which was often given during the past year?

The National War Labor Board, in an exhaustive inquiry into the cost of living in Schenectady, set $15 as the minimal weekly amount upon which a girl can live. About 60 per cent. of the teachers of the country are teaching this year for less than the $780 which this minimum calls for, to say nothing of the expenses which a teacher must meet which are not necessary for the worker in the factory. If the figure were raised to $1,500—the commonly accepted minimum for a worker and his family—there would be but about 6 per cent. of the teachers able to reach that standard of living. In order to obtain information regarding the relation of teachers' salaries to their necessary expenses, the superintendents were asked to record the minimal and maximal salaries paid their teachers, and also to state what good board and a comfortable room cost an elementary teacher in their community (12 months). This is the largest item in a teacher's budget and the most reliable index of her expenses. From statements of national authorities on budgets, and from several actual studies, it is estimated that the cost of board and room should not represent more than 50 per cent. of a teacher's necessary expenses. If allowance is made for the many extra expenses for the "professional upkeep" of the teacher it is probably no more than reasonable to lower the 50 per cent. to 40 per cent. In the light of this standard it is possible to measure the adequacy of established salary schedules by doubling (or multiplying by 2½ if the 40 per cent. is used) the cost of board and room for a particular city, and comparing that sum with the minimal and maximal salaries existing in that city. The following table will give the situation for the cities of the United States as shown by the medians for elementary teachers of the different groups:

Groups	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Total
Minimal Salary*	$731	$600	$650	$610	$570	$613	$614
% below $800..	74%	89%	82%	86%	95%	89%	88%
% below $500..	11%	28%	16%	12%	29%	18%	19%
Board and Room*	$500	$513	$433	$440	$414	$402	$426
Maximal Salary*	$1,125	$1,045	$1,000	$896	$800	$781	$867
% below $1,000	33%	24%	50%	73%	90%	78%	71%
% below $800	0%	6%	7%	32%	50%	57%	37%

These results show from another angle the meagreness of the financial provision for teachers' salaries. Think of the "lure" for ambitious recruits which this form of public service must have when 88 per cent. of the cities of the country establish minimal wages of less than $800, and 37 per cent. set the maximum below that figure! The picture is made but darker when the median teacher's necessary expenses (found by doubling the price of room and board) are compared with the minimal salaries in all of the groups. It is evident that the beginning teacher is not expected to live, or at least for only part of the year, upon her salary, and the picture becomes if anything more gloomy when the comparison is made with the maximal salaries. If a teacher stays long enough to reach the maximal salary she can just about meet necessary expenses. Provision for the future, and any extra preparation, hoped-for travel, or additional comforts must be forsworn or else done by the teacher receiving a median salary on a $5 margin for the year. ($857 — (2 x $426) = $5). Expressed in terms of the per cent. of minimal salary which would be necessary to meet expenses as indicated by board and room, the median is 137.5 per cent., and 99.3 per cent. for the maximal. Ninety-seven per cent. of the cities expect teachers to begin teaching at salaries which are less than their expenses in those cities, and practically 50 per cent. of the cities do not provide maximal salaries large enough to pay necessary expenses.

Another measure of the inadequacy of the present salaries of teachers and the pressure of economic restrictions is furnished by the number of teachers reported by the city superintendents as leaving their schools, and the number leaving to enter other fields of work. Sixty-six per cent. of the teachers withdrawing from any of the school systems, regardless of the cause, were receiving less than the median salaries for their respective groups. Even more significant is the fact that 42 per cent. of these went into fields of work other than teaching, and that of these, 70 per cent. were receiving salaries below the medians for their groups.

Additional evidence on the actual inadequacy of teachers' salaries is furnished by the returns from the 15,000 individual teachers. A tabulation of the answers shows that the median per cent. of salary spent for total expenses is

*For further figures on the salaries of New York teachers, see the article by Mr. Oswald W. Knauth elsewhere in this issue of *The Nation*.

*These amounts are medians for the groups.

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perilously near 100 per cent. for all groups, which only substantiates the findings from the returns of the city superintendents that nearly half the teachers cannot live for 12 months on the salary they receive. If any doubt yet remains that teachers are forced to live with no margin for saving, it will be removed by examining the amounts spent by them for "recreation, books, magazines, travel, professional advancement, philanthropy, insurance, etc." The highest median amount spent for the above items by the teachers of any of the size-groups of cities was $88 in cities over 100,000, and it ranged from this to $46 in the smaller cities. Think how utterly inadequate an expenditure of $88 for all of the above items is, and yet, since it is only the median expenditure, half of the teachers in the larger cities have less than that to spend. Try to plan a year's expenditures for the items under consideration with a $75, yes, even a $25 limit in many cases. Make a list of the newspapers and magazines you want; provide for the four or five new books bearing on your problems which you need every year; decide whether you wish to visit relatives during the Thanksgiving holidays, at Christmas, or in the summer; put aside your Red Cross membership and your desired donations to church and charity—and then debate whether or not you will discount your $50 Liberty Bond, which is not yet paid for, and attend an extension course in order that you may become a more efficient teacher. Is it good business management when the people of this country force their teachers to live so close to their incomes that many such replies as the following were received: "I discontinued my magazines this year in order to buy War Savings Stamps and make our school '100 per cent. thrifty' "? Isn't it a shortsighted policy which makes a teacher decrease her efficiency in order that she may evidence her patriotism?

Or compare teachers' salaries with those received in other kinds of work. In making these comparisons the two figures which represent the earnings of teachers are $630.64 for all teachers in the country, urban and rural, and $917 for all teachers in the cities. Comparing these figures with the earnings of some representative groups from the professions, we find that the difference in salary is more than the two or three additional years of preparation would warrant. The members of the classes of 1893, 1894, and 1896 of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology ten years after graduation were earning median salaries of $3,410, $2,430, and $2,540. Graduates of the Harvard Medical School, after eight years of practice (which is about the median length of teaching experience in city systems) average over $3,000 annually, while those from the School of Law average $4,400 after the same length of time. The average income of 4,650 members of the American Society of Civil Engineers in 1914 was $4,160.

Salaries of teachers do not appear in any more favorable light when compared with the salaries of workers in other fields requiring much less training and preparation than teaching. The Monthly Reviews of the Bureau of Labor Statistics during 1918-19 reported the union scale of wages in operation in certain selected industrial cities of different sections of the United States. By comparing the wages of some of the builders of buildings with those of the builders of citizens we find that it is worth about $400 more per year to carry bricks than to carry the social inheritance of the race; $900 more per year to hammer hot iron than to mould habits; and over $1,000 more per year to erect steel frameworks than to build the frameworks of character. From the same source the average salary paid the workers in shipyards during 1918-19 was computed to be $1,411. Many of these men did not complete the elementary school and yet their average annual earnings are nearly $200 more than the median salary for high school teachers in the country, practically all of whom are college graduates. The Report of the Railroad Wage Commission gave the average salary for all employees for 1918 as $1,137, and even the two lowest paid branches of service, "messengers and attendants" and "section men," receive higher wages during the year than the average wage for all teachers. Railroad section men represent about the lowest degree of unskilled labor, and yet they are financially better rewarded than teachers. Is it any wonder that there is a shortage of competent, ambitious young men and women who are anxious or even willing to prepare for the work of teaching?[1]

In order to determine the extent to which the deplorable conditions of teachers' salaries were realized by the people in the different sections, letters were sent, late in May, to State superintendents inquiring about recent salary increases and recent legislation affecting teachers' salaries. Twenty-seven of the thirty-seven States replying have passed laws within the last two years directly or indirectly affecting teachers' salaries. It is noteworthy and significant that the two States, California and New York, which this year passed the most liberal salary laws were the States that in 1918 paid higher salaries than any other States; the only two, in fact, paying salaries which averaged above $900. The New York law is significant because of the liberal maximal salaries set, especially for New York City, where teachers in the kindergartens and the first six grades may reach a maximum of $2,160, teachers in the intermediate schools $2,700, and teachers in the high schools $3,150 or $3,650 for heads of departments. California increased its State per pupil allowance by 16 2/3 per cent., its per teacher allowance by 40 per cent., and its county per pupil allowance by 62 per cent. Many other States passed progressive legislation, while others passed laws which for those States represented real progress over past conditions and which yet were far behind standards already attained elsewhere. It will seem almost incredible to the citizens in most of the States that last year a State had to wage a lively campaign in order to establish a minimal school term of six months, and even more incredible that several States have not yet reached that standard. It is hard to see an advance in a law which fixes the maximal salary for beginning teachers with a third-grade certificate at $40 a month and provides that "boards may pay less at their discretion"; and yet conditions were much worse before the passage of this law. One State has several counties paying salaries as low as $30 per month to its rural teachers, while another averaged only $26 per month for six months to its colored female teachers. We cannot claim democratic equality in America when a whole section of our country, the Southern section, is finan-

[1]For those interested in college salaries, which are not included in this study, it is interesting to compare the above figures with the salaries paid in American colleges. Dr. H. W. Hurt, in a study of college salaries made in June of this year, found that the "median or middle salary of the 6,598 professors in the 74 colleges and universities on the Carnegie Foundation list is $2,000." "If a distribution be made of the average salary paid to professors, the average salary paid to associate and assistant professors, and the average to instructors, the median or middle average of this group is but $1,300." These figures would indicate that the average college teacher receives less than many of the skilled and unskilled trades. It would almost seem that the ten or twelve years of schooling more than the average citizen which the college teacher needs to prepare for his work are in reality a financial handicap.

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cially unable to provide educational opportunities equal either in amount or adequacy to those provided in other sections. A study of the school conditions and school laws of the South, of certain sections of New England, and in some of the Middle Western States makes it very evident that there need to be sweeping reforms in the methods of financing our school systems. The only principle which can be applied to remedy this situation and which will, in its application, insure greater equality of opportunity is the principle of supporting schools from increasingly larger taxation units—from district to county, from county to State, from State to Nation. The findings of this investigation indicate that a form of national subsidy, such as that proposed by the National Education Association and now before Congress in the Smith-Towner Bill, is not only urgently necessary but will do more than any other one thing to make a democracy in more than name only.

In proposing various remedies for the present educational situation, all competent persons seem, sooner or later, by direct or roundabout roads, to arrive at the teacher's salary as the most potent element. It seems useless to say, "Increase the supply from our training schools," or "Increase the amount of preparation necessary to enter teaching," when there are no financial returns upon the investment. It is impossible to ask teachers to assist in programmes of Americanization, to assist in the assimilation of adult immigrants, to carry on health, social, and civic campaigns in their communities, and to inculcate the habits, ideals, and attitudes which the citizens of a decade hence must have, when many of the teachers are almost untrained children themselves and most of those who are not cannot afford to make the necessary preparation. To make such preparation worth while the establishment of intelligently constructed salary schedules is advocated. These schedules should start with a minimum which should be a living wage, they should offer increases large enough to represent some profit on the year's work and a recognition of increasing merit, and they should extend to a maximum large enough to make teaching a career in itself, rather than a stepping-stone to something better, a stepping-stone already deeply worn by transient pedagogical feet stepping into law, salesmanship, business, matrimony, and many other careers. These people have in many cases been a double loss to teaching: in the first place by having little heart for the work while they were preparing for something else, and in the second place by leaving teaching at a time when their experience was becoming valuable and should have been used in order to offset as far as possible the wasteful mistakes of the beginner.

To serve as an incentive to adequate preparation, to permanence in the work, and to continued growth while teaching, a salary schedule is proposed which makes the minimal salaries in cities of 25,000 or more $1,200 for teachers with normal school training, $1,400 for teachers with an A. B. degree, and more in proportion for additional graduate work represented by advanced degrees. These minimal salaries may each be lowered by $200 for the smaller cities, as there is at the present time about that much difference in living expenses. Annual increases of $100 are recommended for efficient service over a period of 6 years for normal school graduates, and over 10 years for college graduates. There should be no salary distinction whatever made between the work of teaching in the different grades, nor between the different school divisions, assuming, of course, that the amount of preparation is the same.[1]

The world has a right to look to the United States to exemplify the principles of democracy and world-fellowship which we believe in so strongly and uphold so strenuously. In turn the political and educational leaders of the United States must look to the schools of today and tomorrow to enable us to meet this great obligation. Is it to be gloriously done? Not with the means now at our national disposal. And it will not be so done until the American people become so intelligently informed on the work and possibilities of the schools that they will demand the highest possible degree of educational efficiency, and will provide as the essential to that efficiency a living and a saving wage for every person who has shown that he can do the work and consequently deserves the name of teacher.

The Boston Trade Union College

BY WILLIAM LEAVITT STODDARD

PROBABLY no single important act of a central labor body in any American city has ever met with more instantaneous and popular approval than the vote of the Boston Central Labor Union on March 16 last when the establishment of a Trade Union College was authorized and its maintenance pledged. The only murmurs of adverse criticism which were heard came from those who regretted that none but trade unionists might participate in the activities of the new school and from those who suggested that the same ends might be attained by a broadening of the Massachusetts State extension service. But with the fundamental idea of the college nobody could quarrel.

In the reconstruction programme of the American Federation of Labor, drafted by a committee appointed a year ago in June, we find under the head of education these sentences:

> It is impossible to estimate the influence of education upon the world's civilization. Education must not stifle thought and inquiry, but must awaken the mind concerning the application of natural laws and to a conception of independence and progress.
>
> Education must not be for a few but for all our people. While there is an advanced form of public education in many States, there still remains a lack of adequate educational facilities in several States and communities. The welfare of the Republic demands that public education should be elevated to the highest degree possible. The Government should exercise advisory supervision over public education and where necessary maintain adequate public education through subsidies without giving to the Government power to hamper or interfere with the free development of public education by the several States. It is essential that our system of public education should offer the wage-earners' children the opportunity for the fullest possible development. To attain this end, State colleges and universities should be developed.

The second sentence of this quotation is repeated in the first announcement of the new Trade Union College. The spirit and purpose of the entire quotation animated the Boston Central Labor Union in voting to establish the college and may therefore be taken as expressing its guiding principles. In this same announcement the statement was further made: "The Trade Union College has been established by the Boston Central Labor Union in order to make

[1] The details of this schedule and suggestions for administering it will be published in the complete report of this study, to be issued by the National Education Association.

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directly accessible to workingmen and workingwomen the study of subjects which will further the progress of organized labor."

Back of these declarations lies a bit of unwritten history which, though it may not all be told at this time, is nevertheless worth being partially related. For many years the Boston labor movement has been advocating the establishment of a State university, open to every class of citizen on such terms that every class could obtain the advantages of the privately-owned universities so numerous in Massachusetts. While it is doubtless true that there is a growing sentiment in Massachusetts favorable to the creation of such a university, the fact remains that there is none, and that in spite of the extension service whereby State and private universities coöperate to effect a wider utilization of the resources of education in Massachusetts, there is still a large and unsatisfied demand for yet more education. All this was brought out in the report of the committee of the Central Labor Union when it was laid before that body for action. Failing to obtain a State university, it was the opinion of Boston organized labor that labor should set up its own university if only to show the State that it was utterly in earnest in its statement that the workers of the State desired higher education.

During the preliminary days before the submission to the Central Labor Union of the final plan, several educators of prominence had been consulting with the drafting committee and preparing jointly with them the details and specifications of the college. At the same time there was in process of organization a body of teachers which contained certain names the announcement of which at once placed the new institution in a position to command the respect of the public. Few could laugh the attempt to scorn when it was known that Dean Roscoe Pound of the Harvard Law School, Professor Irving Fisher of Yale, Professor William Z. Ripley of Harvard, Mr. Francis Bowes Sayre of Harvard, and others of note had "signed up" with the labor college.

From the very first it was the aim of all those promoting the college to create an institution which should be democratic both in principle and in practice. For this reason the governing board or "committee in charge" is not fashioned after existing governing councils of American universities but is composed of a joint committee, some members of which represented the proprietors of the college, the Central Labor Union, and the remainder the instructing force. This committee, as now constituted, consists of eleven trade unionists and five instructors. Each section of the joint committee naturally is responsible to the body electing or appointing it, and the whole is responsible to the Central Labor Union before which, at open meetings, appeals may be taken. There is thus every opportunity for every kind of "faculty row" to be aired not only before the trustees but before the ultimate stockholders or underwriters of the college. Nor does the fact that the trade unionists on the committee in charge outnumber the instructors greatly matter; it is always possible for a minority to bring in a report and appeal on the basis of such report to the final authority.

Resolutions adopted by the instructors acting as a separate body declare for the right of academic freedom and assert that the function of the instructors in the college is educational and nothing beyond that.

On this basis, then, the new college opened its doors on the evening of April 7 for its first short spring term of ten weeks. The physical problems, so to speak, presented few difficulties and were easily solved. The use of rooms in a modern and well-equipped high school in the Roxbury district was obtained from the Boston School Board. Each of the twelve courses to be given during the term was scheduled for a week-day evening, from eight to ten. Members of trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, together with members of their immediate families, were admitted for the course fee of $2.50, subject only to verification by the secretary of their good standing or relationship. Registration was left in the hands of the secretary, whose desk was at the Central Labor Union.

It was freely admitted on all sides that the spring term was a trial term—a trial both of the whole idea and of methods, subjects, and instructors. It was none the less a trial of students. The Boston Central Labor Union represents somewhere in the neighborhood of fifty thousand dues-paying men and women, each theoretically a potential pupil. What were the educational demands of these people? What did they want to learn and what could be offered them? As has been indicated, the time between the authorization of the college and the opening of the courses was a trifle over three weeks, and the mere question of proper advertisement and explanation presented many difficulties. The final registration was therefore smaller than might have been expected from so large a population. But the hundred and fifty odd who enrolled and who are now taking the courses are enough to test the idea from every point of view. What the result of this test will be cannot now be stated. It can, however, be forecast.

The general subjects covered are six: English, Labor Organization, Law, Government, Economics, and Science. The English courses are three: one in the theory and practice of English composition, one in the practice of discussion, and one a survey of the great literatures of the world. The Labor courses are likewise three: the history of trade unions, shop committees and collective bargaining, and the history of the freedom of labor. The one course in Law, given by Professor Pound, is an introduction to American law. The one course in Government is a study of political processes in England and America. The one course in Economics is "a study of the economic priciples which are of special importance to labor." Under Science fall two courses: the fundamental principles of physical science, and the elements of mental science including the principles of reasoning. So much for the bare bones of the present curriculum.

English has by far the largest registration of all the courses. The courses in Law, Government, and Science are probably next in popularity, with Economics and Labor Organization coming at the end. What is the significance of any of these statistics it would be difficult to say except to point out that so-called "practical" courses, such as the first two mentioned under English, more nearly meet the needs of the trade unionists than the others. This is not, however, to argue or to admit that the rest of the courses are unpopular or not wanted, for this is far from the fact. But the average workingman who after a full day's work comes out for an evening in a schoolroom, tends to want to learn how to do something which will be of immediate use to him.

Whether out of the college thus begun will grow an institution which can eventually take rank in size and standing with other educational institutions in Massachusetts and

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the United States, it is too early to say. It has set out well. Its student body is of the stuff that good colleges are made of—sober, eager, liberal-minded men and women. It is a college with a definite aim, labor organization, an aim which today is becoming less dreaded and more and more useful to the community. It is a college which affords an object lesson in self-determination and democratic government. And it is a type of college which, by the very fact of its origin in a central labor body, is easily capable of being duplicated in a hundred or a thousand other cities.

Dudley Allen Sargent

By F. N. WHITTIER

ONE of the surprises of the Harvard Commencement season was the resignation of Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent, for forty years Director of Hemenway Gymnasium. But there is one position that Dr. Sargent cannot resign, and that is his place as Pioneer in Physical Education. His work has been sane and fundamental. Exercises devised by him have been taught by thousands of physical training teachers to hundreds of thousands of students in all parts of the world. And not only the teachers trained by him, but the books and magazine articles he has written, the gymnasium appliances, exercises, and games he has invented, and the organization he has founded, have all contributed to the ever widening circle of his influence.

Dudley Allen Sargent was born at Belfast, Maine, September 28, 1849. His parents were of English and New England stock. His father dying in 1855, the boy spent most of his youth on his uncle's farm, trained by the mixture of school and work that has developed so many American boys. He was very strong and active for his age, and excelled in athletic sports and gymnastic feats. In 1869 he went to Brunswick and began to teach gymnastics at Bowdoin College while he was being prepared for college by the Brunswick High School and a private tutor. He entered Bowdoin in 1871 and graduated in 1875. It was at Bowdoin that he invented and installed many of his developing appliances and worked out the beginning of a plan of physical education for college students. From 1875 to 1878 he was at Yale as Director of the Gymnasium and as a student in the Yale Medical School. He received his M. D. in 1878. The next year he went to New York City to teach physical training and study in the hospitals. In the fall of 1879, when Hemenway Gymnasium was completed, Dr. Sargent was called by Harvard to be its first Director.

From the first the new director put the chief emphasis on all-round physical development. He at once introduced a plan of prescribed developing exercises for strengthening the weaker parts of the body, and his prescription was based on the results of a careful physical examination of the individual. The examination, which was very searching, included careful attention to heart and lungs, and about fifty measurements and strength tests. All the results of this examination were made matters of record. As this plan of examination was introduced by Dr. Sargent's pupils to other institutions, after a few years the results of over ten thousand examinations had been obtained. From these results Dr. Sargent prepared charts which made it possible to compare each person examined with the normal standard of the same age, size, and sex. Abnormalities of size and strength were thrown out in startling relief by the chart. Dr. Sargent evolved and published a handbook of developing exercises by the use of which instructors could decide what exercises and hygienic advice to give each student to correct the defects shown by the chart and the physical examination. In forty years, Dr. Sargent's department has made fifty thousand physical examinations. These examinations include eighteen thousand individuals. During that time the average height of the Harvard student has increased from 67.7 inches to 68.7 inches; the average weight, from 135.2 pounds to 141.6 pounds; the average strength has increased one-fourth.

It is a fact not generally known that Dr. Sargent's contracts with Harvard have called for only half his time to be given to the College. So, while he has given his best to Harvard, he has been free to devote much time to broader work. In 1881 he established the Sargent School of Physical Education. This school has trained many hundreds of teachers in Dr. Sargent's ideas. Another activity of a similar influence was the establishment of the Harvard Summer School of Physical Education in 1887. It has numbered on its rolls over four thousand students. He has been a pioneer in developing physical training for women as well, particularly through the Sargent Camp for Girls at Peterborough, New Hampshire, which has set the pace for the girls' camps of America and has brought a knowledge of camp life and out-of-door sports to hundreds of growing girls. Another of Dr. Sargent's interests is the Health Education League, of which he has been the president for many years. An important result of this organization has been its well-known Health Education Series, of over thirty booklets written by experts and dealing with different health subjects. Dr. Sargent has himself written valuable books, perhaps the most valuable being "Health, Strength, and Power" (1904) and "Physical Training" (1906).

Dr. Sargent's attitude toward college athletics has been sometimes misunderstood. Himself an athlete, he has always been an athletic enthusiast. Nevertheless his enthusiasm has not prevented him from pointing out certain evil tendencies in such matters. As early as 1883 he advocated regulation and reform of college athletics and made definite recommendations which aroused much hostility. All these recommendations have since been adopted with the single exception of the proposal that the annual Harvard-Yale boat race should be three miles instead of four. He has been opposed only to certain exaggerated ideas about athletics but has been an earnest advocate of athletics in their saner aspects.

Another opinion of Dr. Sargent's that has met with opposition is his low estimate of the value of military drill as a means of physical education. In the period following the Civil War numerous educators claimed great advantages for military drill as a means of securing a full and symmetrical development of the physique. As a result many towns and cities introduced military drill as the sole method of physical training. Early in the eighties Dr. Sargent showed the complete inadequacy of military drill in this respect and urged that it should be combined with setting-up exercises to prevent it from doing actual harm to the immature framework of growing boys.

One of the great services of Dr. Sargent to physical education was his early stand for its value educationally, and his fight for the same academic credit for college work in physical training courses as for the same amount of work

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in Greek or Mathematics. It is true that Harvard has not adopted this principle as yet, but Bowdoin, acting largely on his advice, has given positive academic credit for work in required physical training since 1889. Other colleges have fallen into line, so that by the last statistics available, (1917) of 213 American institutions of collegiate standing, 114 had adopted the plan of giving positive credit for work in physical training. It is to be noted that Harvard has made a slight concession in requiring athletics of freshmen for next year, though without academic credit.

Those of us who have had charge of the physical examination of drafted men in the recent war have had brought home to us the recommendation made many years ago by Dr. Sargent as a result of his observation that 38 per cent. of the men drafted in the Civil War were rejected for military service: the recommendation that universal physical training be undertaken as the proper remedy. The results of our latest national examination are convincing proof that a vast number of physical defects might have been remedied or avoided by competent care during the period of school life. Defects of eyesight and hearing, the early loss of teeth, flat-foot, spinal curvatures, are nearly all preventable or remediable in their early stages. Physical instructors and school physicians, working together, could prevent or cure most of them. The result would be to save a vast amount of misery and ineffectiveness. Millions of lives have been clouded and billions of dollars lost to America by the impaired effectiveness of her people through the failure to heed Dr. Sargent's advice given so many years ago.

At a meeting of the Athletic Research Society in New York last December, to consider after-the-war tendencies, Dr. Sargent again urged the necessity of physical training for all (both men and women) instead of highly specialized athletics for a few. This time his appeal struck the keynote of the meeting and of other meetings that followed, at which the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy through their written messages emphasized the same points. As a matter of fact, the movement for athletics for all has been gaining headway recently in the colleges through the introduction of intramural sports, and bids fair to solve most of the problems of college athletics. The broader problem of physical training and health education for the whole public must be solved by the united efforts of physical instructors, teachers of hygiene, and school physicians. Many States and cities have made beginnings.

An interesting by-product of Dr. Sargent's work has been the determination of the measurements of typical male and female figures and the construction of statues representing such figures. It is interesting to note that the measurements conform closely to those of the art models of the ancient Greeks.

Dr. Sargent has shown the way. His work in basing physical education and development upon a scientific system of physical examination, his stand for the educational value of physical education, his development of athletics for women, his opposition to the exaggeration of spectacular athletics, his organization of such work as is carried on by the Health Education League, and his training of teachers wedded to no particular method of physical training but familiar with the best of all methods—all these together furnish a base upon which to build a system of physical training and health education that will bring untold benefit to the American people.

Literature

A Tragic Idyll

An American Idyll: The Career of Carleton Parker. By Cornelia Stratton Parker. Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press.

THIS is a very human story, very well worth the telling. The idyllic quality in it comes from the blissful contentment of the hero and heroine and the happy domestic setting of the tale. It is unmistakably American—American in its joyousness amid hardship, American in its spirit of venture, physical and mental, American in its lightheartedness combined with a serious enthusiasm for the right side of living; American, too, in its pathos, in its waste of human material paralleling the national extravagance in exploiting natural resources.

The story of Carleton Parker, who died in March, 1918, at the age of forty, is told by his wife, primarily as a memorial for their children. The personal tone dominates, yielding at times to a more objective note by way of citations from Parker's writings. Yet that note is justified in that Carleton Parker belongs, if not by achievement, then by gift of temperament, to the group of engaging personalities whose accomplishments are measurably less than their influence. After a college romance which led to a supremely happy marriage undertaken upon a promising talent and abundant energy, but upon no more tangible prospects, he went through years of narrow struggle and enthusiastic adventure in preparing himself to be a practical economist. His earlier experiences as a miner, as agent for a futile mining expedition to South Africa (by way of London), as an amateur journalist, as a camper in the wilds of Idaho, show his bent for turning the pages of life and his delight in first-hand contact with the realities of pioneering. A sportsman, he carried a sportsman's temper to his dealings with human nature; he was animated by a youthful sympathy with the untried and the experimental, and by the same token became readily dissatisfied with the conventional and the sheltered tradition.

To travel across the continent with a wife and a seven months' old baby in order to enter Harvard University as a graduate student and live on next to nothing; to go off alone, and wretchedly home-sick, to Germany in an attempt to make up his language requirements; to return to welcome a second son; to start again with wife and both babies for a year in Germany, which proved to be four years; to support himself in Berlin by tutoring in English, while keeping up his studies; to become as popular with professors and students in Leipzig, Heidelberg, and Munich as at home, and eventually to get a doctor's degree with a *summa cum laude;* to return, with a debt of $2,000, to an instructorship at the University of California—to do all this with the keenest zest in the enterprise and frugal pleasures by the way bespeaks a personality of no small quality. Parker's knack in getting along with men of all stations led to his appointment as secretary of the Immigration and Housing Commission of California at a good salary. He held the post for a year, and then went back to poverty and teaching. A Mæcenas appeared who recognized Carleton's worth and gave him the opportunity, in the interest of the book which was to be his message to the world, to become acquainted with the master minds of American theories and affairs. He journeyed to meet Veblen, and Dewey, and Patten, and Hall, and E. L. Thorndike, and Meyer, and Watson, and Robinson, and Taussig, journalists of New York, Cabinet officers in Washington, and all who had ideas and vision which he could use. His radicalism grew with his dissatisfaction with the accredited economics; his informal popularity and easy familiarity with students, his fraternizing with all sorts and conditions of men, did not improve his academic standing. Having been called to the University of Washington to establish a department of Economics, he was promptly enlisted in mediation with strikers on behalf of the

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Government then at war and needing its utmost industrial resources, made a national reputation in this career, found himself suddenly besieged with tempting offers from many sources, overworked to keep all his many interests going, fell a victim to pneumonia, and passed away with the *magnum opus* unwritten and his life-work barely begun.

"He gave as a Federal mediator," writes one of his appreciators, "all his unparalleled knowledge and understanding of labor and its point of view. That knowledge, that understanding, he gained, not by academic investigation, but by working in mines and woods, in shops and on farms. He had the trust and confidence of both sides in disputes between labor and capital; his services were called in wherever trouble was brewing. Thanks to him strikes were averted; war-work of the most vital importance, threatened by misunderstanding and smouldering discontent, went on." "Parker," writes Mr. Bruère, "was the first of our economists, not only to analyze the psychology of labor and especially of casual labor, but also to make his analysis the basis for an applied technique of industrial and social reconstruction." Judge Brandeis speaks of him as "among the very few Americans who possessed the character, knowledge, and insight which are indispensable in dealing effectively with our labor problem." Others who met him personally or professionally are of one accord in their enthusiastic appreciation of the splendid virile enthusiasms of the man, engrossed in a life work that absorbed his tremendous powers once he had found the germinating ideas for his inspiration.

The career of Carleton Parker describes an irregular orbit around two foci: the one academic, for the magnet of his life work was the lure of teaching, the other economic, for that was his specialty, not merely as a subject of study, but as the core of his living and thinking. Any doubt that Parker's gifts and temperament fitted him for the teacher's profession must give way to the testimony of his students, and the vitality of his class-room work. It may seem to some that his talents were of a more practical type, demanding a career in which ideas could be realistically applied to men and affairs, rather than one which served by influencing future leaders. But it is part of the American academic ideal, as of no other, to combine these functions. It is only the short-sighted and inadequate provision for its realization that is both foolish and pathetic. "It is an astounding fact which his university must explain," comments a writer, "that he, with his great abilities as a leader and teacher, his wide travel and experience and training, received from the university in his last year of service there a salary of $1,700 a year!" "It is an astounding fact" that his university treated Parker more liberally than many universities treat men of his age. Mrs. Parker records that "he left the University of California a young assistant professor, just one rebellious morsel in a huge machine"; the machine must do the explaining. The poverty and hardship to which young Parker was subjected was far greater and more prolonged than that measure of struggle which tests a man's mettle and acts as a spur. Drudgery and wearing absorption in chores defeat the better purpose of men's talents. The financial economy of universities which keeps men below the comfort line is stupendous folly; and of that folly Parker was a victim, indeed a martyr. To establish and maintain costly plants, which universities are and must be, on a budget which stops at the point at which the profit of the institution is jeopardized, is a glaring instance of inefficiency. A reasonable increase in the salary scale would in many instances double the value of the plant—to stoop to the most commercial appraisal. The trouble lies in the machine, and will not be remedied until universities are controlled by the profession that makes their work possible. The case of Carleton Parker has a dramatic interest which may well be used to prevent the too frequent repetition of the tragedy.

The American university was a sore point in Parker's rebellious outbursts. "Consider the paradox of the rigidity of the university student's scheme of study and the vagaries and whims of the scholarly emotion." Commenting upon the chaotic student programmes, the schoolboy discipline and emphasis upon marks, the routine drill and absence of inspiration, he continues: "The large industry of American college athletics and its organization-for-victory concept, the tendency to set up an efficient corporation as the proper university model, the extensive and unashamed university advertising, and consequent apprehension of public opinion, the love of size and large registration, that strange psychological abnormality, organized cheering, the curious companionship of State universities and military drill, regular examinations and rigidly prescribed work—all these interesting characteristics are, as is natural in character formation, both cause and effect. It becomes an easy prophecy within behaviorism to forecast that American universities will continue regular and mediocre in mental activity and reasonably devoid of intellectual bent toward experimental thinking." The "interesting characteristic" is that the effect upon the student is of a piece with the depression or the detachment or the rebellion of the alert and progressive professor; the administrative emphasis is responsible for both ills. In holding such views Parker was but one of a growing group of men who in numbers and influence would be much larger were it not that their opinions stand in the way of their preferment so long as the control of universities emphasizes a different perspective of qualities, and distributes its offices accordingly. Hence the misleading silences and the importance of rare voices in the wilderness.

The specific protest of Carleton Parker was against orthodox Economics. "This brings one to perhaps the most costly delinquency of modern Economics, and that is its refusal to incorporate into its weighings and appraisals the facts and hypotheses of modern psychology. Nothing in the postulates of the science of Economics is as ludicrous as its catalogues of human wants. . . . It would be a great task and a useless one to work through current economic literature and gather the strange and mystical collection of human dispositions which economists have named the spring of human activity. . . . It seems accurate to ascribe the social sterility of Economic theory and its programme to its ignorance and lack of interest in modern comparative psychology." It was Parker's discovery, rather late in his preparation, of modern psychology that gave him a fulcrum from which to move upon his social problems: hence his tour to the home of the psychologists, the behaviorists, and biologists, and the students of the abnormal to gain an insight into the problems of labor and living, which becomes that of needs and their satisfaction, and thus particularly the problem of consumption. "The divorcing for inspection of the field of production from the rest of the machinery of civilization has brought into practice a false method, and the values arrived at have been unhappily half-truths. America is today a monument to the truth that growth in wealth becomes significant for national welfare only when it is joined with an efficient and social policy for its consumption." "Economics will save itself only through an alliance with the sciences of human behavior, psychology and biology, and through a complete emancipation from 'prosperity' mores. . . . The sin of Economics has been the divorce of its work from reality, of announcing an analysis of human activity with the human element left out."

In the light of the world war, which has played like an earthquake among the accepted stabilities of the social order, Economics certainly has come out badly; its vision was nearsighted, astigmatic, and belated, and it wore blinders besides. Its capacity to anticipate proved meagre, it was painfully bound to the past, and worst of all, it continues to set forth as economic "laws" what are but consequences of universal motives acting under certain conditions, and appearing as independent laws or relations of importance only because the motives and conditions are ignored. Mistaking the products of its assumptions for realities, it makes obeisance to its own creations as ordained by inexorable destiny. Even so simple and helplessly inanimate a concept as a price is endowed with mysterious power to soar, when obviously a price cannot go up unless some one pushes it up; and

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the motive for the push and the conditions of its success are the whole reality. Credit is the confidence of others, and not an asset in a vault; and the State is the name of the machinery intended t secure freedom of human development.

It was, however, the more specific failure of Economics to deal with the problems of labor that urged Parker to a psychological solution. In his first report upon a labor riot, he analyzed the situation back to the conditions of living; he concluded that those responsible for these conditions were responsible for the deadly outbreak. This incident attracted attention to his ideas, for the reason that, acting as a clinical physician, he not only diagnosed but prescribed and cured.

The basis of Parker's system was elaborately borrowed; his thinking included many currents, chiefly psychological. What was distinctive was his faith in the power of the new method to refute the old economics and reform the actual handling of actual problems. And therein lies the quality of the minority leader. What is rare is the ability to stand out, if not alone at least lonely, against vested opinion and authoritative influence without yielding and yet without raising the suspicion of a personal grudge or disappointment. To replace this prejudice against the reformer with an admiration of his vivid personality seems to have been the peculiar achievement of Carleton Parker, which makes his loss even a larger cause for regret than it can be on purely personal grounds. He represents the type of men needed in many places to set things right without revolution, to speak plainly to men in power who are too commonly inhospitable to the younger vision. That his career falls in two domains to which many look for aid in the busy problems of the future—the domain of the university and of social economics—gives the story of his life a peculiar timeliness and a wider appeal.

The Debt of Education to the War

What the War Teaches About Education. By Ernest Carroll Moore. The Macmillan Company.

THE central cluster of ideas that run through the patterns of Professor Moore's pages is that knowledge must be practical, specific, and definite; that one can learn only particular things because one can do only particular things; that experiment shows (though some dispute it) that there is almost no transfer of learning except in so far as the two "things" learned share common elements; that learning useless "things" or studies for discipline is a wasteful tradition, and yet that through the inspiration of the practical, the cultural ideals must be, and will be, maintained. "The man who objects to the onrushing present-day movement to make education specific throughout and definitely preparatory for the work of life does so for one, or perhaps more than one, of three reasons. He either follows Aristotle as against Socrates and Plato and declares that knowledge exists for the sake of knowledge, science for the sake of science, and learning for the sake of learning, or he holds to the doctrine of formal discipline and believes that there are some studies which improve the mind and perfect its powers and which are therefore indispensable while we are getting an education, though we cannot after we leave school use them. Or he fears that making education definitely practical will result in such a narrowing of the course of study which each student pursues that nothing but one-sided training will result, and therefore prefers the old confused, aimless, and unjustifiable education solely because he believes it requires the student to study more different subjects than the proposed arrangement will require. There is a fourth reason which some men give for their preference for the old studies. It is that they give the student hard work and lots of it, but this justification of them overlooks the fact that the new studies provide plenty of work, too, and have the advantage of permitting the student to understand why he does it."

Now the so-called objector, who is really not a negative obstructionist but an educationalist of a different stamp, is sufficiently perverse not to believe any such thing, for any such reasons. He refuses to model himself after the man of straw thus readily perforated by the arguments advanced as part of the "onrushing present-day movement" stated in terms of Aristotle and Plato. When he is confronted with such brilliant knock-down arguments as that "it is as sensible to say that hammers exist for the sake of hammers as that literature exists for the sake of literature," he refuses to be impressed, because he has never held that literature any more than the sabbath was ordained, but that both grew up as a part of human needs and institutions undirected by pedagogical authorities; and he is well aware of the difference between hammers and pens as instruments of enforcement. The factor of the wielder always remains to be thought of. Hammers can smash as well as construct, and pens write nonsense as fluently as wisdom.

But Mr. Moore is persistent. As an illustration of what should and what should not be taught, he harks back again and again to the appalling fact that there are 400,000 words in the dictionary and only 2,000 words used by the adept, and 500 by the average man, and consequently all the time spent upon the spelling of words not used is wasted. To which "Amen, and good riddance" for the far more important reason that in any wisely fashioned educational practice spelling will take care of itself. But this is the peroration: "As long as we cling to the view that spelling is for spelling, we are so confused and uncertain that we get nowhere and no one is pleased with our attempts, ourselves and the children least of all. That we are not pleased may make but little difference, but that the children should because of our misguided efforts learn to hate learning is a tragedy more terrible and devastating even than the world war."

Such ill-advised rhetoric is pretty poor pedagogical bluster even from the author's point of view. Exaggerate the spelling mismanagement as you like, you cannot make a philosophy of education out of its blunders without stultifying the rest of your construction. Once more—on a left-hand page one reads: "In New York city recently there was a tooth-brush drill in Central Park in which hundreds of public school children took part, whose sole object was to impress the need for the care of the teeth upon them. This is a good illustration of the stress which modern society is beginning to put upon these matters." And on the right-hand page immediately opposite: "We are, I think, upon the eve of the greatest educational revival that the world has yet seen. It will be an education, however, which is not primarily materialistic. It will have for its prime purpose the culture of human ideals." Cleanliness is admittedly next to godliness, and the tooth-brush route to educational salvation is open. But this eclectic juxtaposition of views and interests gets one nowhere and raises the suspicion of an absence of perspective, which is the most fatal lack for the educationalist and tempts him to the impertinent or the grotesque.

The stumbling blocks which Mr. Moore uses as cornerstones of his foundation are the doctrine of "formal discipline," which according to him is an ancient and a pernicious shibboleth implying that there is something in studies besides content, and the doctrine of "transfer," which is held to contend that by practicing on one thing one can learn another. If we subscribe to the one we are put down as old fogies who have never advanced beyond "faculty psychology" and who make fetishes of memory, and vicarious mental exercise; if we have any hesitations as to how far experimental results may be transferred to practical problems and generalizations of larger scope we are accused of under-rating the scientific method. We are assured by Professor Spearman that "the great assumption upon which education has rested for so many centuries is now at last rendered amenable to experimental corroboration—and it proves to be false." However, Professor Dewey is quoted with approval when he lays down a common-sense view of the relation between

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what one learns at school and what one does out of it, emphasizing that the two must be and should be devised upon different patterns. Yet the conclusion is adhered to that studies must take the life-form, and education must be vocationalized throughout. Another professor is cited as convinced that pursuing studies for reasons which the student cannot understand (nor can we ourselves, for that matter) leaves him mentally disorganized and ambitionless." "His idealism is gone, he distrusts his own powers, and he faces the world in a dejected and despairing condition." How many more could testify that the over-attention to the practical is characteristic of the weaker type of student who builds up a collection of vain regrets for the future.

The discussion is rather aimless and shallow and often verbal, putting new wine in old bottles and denaturing their original value. Nature does not work on that pattern; and much that we need for digestion has slight food value. So far as Mr. Moore's doctrine is true, it is a truism; and even at that it is constantly counteracted by inconsistent allowances and reservations. Freud is cited to show that a child whose parents continually quarrel will not have a normal temperament; while according to the doctrine of "no transfer" (as elsewhere applied), the child should grow up with an aversion to quarreling parents, and nothing more.

All this tendency to steer by a few points of the compass would result in nothing more serious than needless tacking, were it not that it leads to a false notion of the basis of educational theory and of the complex processes by which knowledge goes and wisdom lingers. As a matter of fact the sense of the fitness of things is not aroused by pointing out errors in the unquestioned irregular and often backward course of human attempts to shape the human mind. Educationalists, if they are to gain the prestige which their calling demands, must cultivate a larger insight and a fairer historical sense, and prattle less about evaluation. They may properly direct attention to the world war as a proof of the value of specific and definite acquisitions; but they should equally cite the evidence of the rapidity with which this acquisition was built upon the basis of a pliability and acquisitiveness of mind which somehow education, even when it is riddled with blunders, has a tendency to confer. Whether the war shows what can be done in spite of education rather than in consequence of it; whether it shows that the football fields of England had something to do with the result, despite the doctrine of transfer, which shows that football teaches only football and not war; whether the war shows that sewer-diggers made the best soldiers because they had the specific training in digging trenches which the war required, or that dwellers in subterranean excavations had an advantage in war over those used to dwellings above ground; all these queries are as well answered—and in terms of our predilections, if we prefer—as those on which an erratic philosophy of education is so readily built by the piecemeal method, which (to cite a parallel situation) accounts for the wretchedness of much of our planless and second-rate American architecture.

The problem of knowing and doing will not yield to any such simplified solution, even if based upon laboratory records; the essential point is the method of interpretation of evidence and the spirit of its application. In that field lie the real lessons which the war can teach the educationalists. To repeat: In many parts of the course traversed (notably in the essay on history) there is much sound second-rate material; and Mr. Moore's influence in his teachings may exhibit that he really is equipped to lead the minds under his care. But in spite of this reservation, there is so much of this cocksure "educationalism" astir across the length and breadth of the land that educational meetings are of all gatherings the most disappointing. Education is a science and an art in the same sense in which living is a science and an art. A professorship of education is obviously no warrant of any superior equipment to preach or practice it.

Franklin's College

The University of Pennsylvania; Franklin's College. By Horace Mather Lippincott. J. B. Lippincott Co.

THIS book is interesting, though not wholly for the reasons which the author intended. It is presented in eight chapters. The first is a story of "America's First University" and occupies about a third of the book. Of its sixty-five pages about fifty are concerned with events before 1800; about five with developments since 1900; the remaining ten with the century between. In this chapter the reader gathers illuminating facts such as that Judge Peters, who became a trustee in 1789, was a dairy specialist and sold Belmont butter in one-pound packages; that F. A. Jackson, a professor of Latin about a hundred years later, was nicknamed "Goat" because of his flowing beard; and that Philadelphia is well described as the "City of Homes." Instructed by these details but not fully satisfied by them, the reader turns eagerly to the second chapter on "The Provosts," where he is thrilled by the detailed specifications of the first provost's house together with the height of the occupant. He feels furthermore that he is supplied with a cue toward understanding the whole work in a statement apropos of the twelfth provost that "the author of this book wishes to escape the writing of contemporary history."

This wish has been only partly gratified. No contemporary history of any essential significance has been presented, but the chapter on the "Seal, Colours, Cheer, and Songs" is brought well up to date, and the chapter on "University Characters," after a preliminary discussion of some of the early janitors, Mrs. Dougherty, "Gold Annie," and Otto Reunig, a saloonkeeper, ends with a tribute to "Scotty," the ground-keeper at Franklin Field, which surpasses in length and enthusiasm the testimonials to most of the provosts. Then follows in chapter six a thirty-page discussion of athletics which is brought down to 1917, then a summary of patriotic services chiefly in successive wars, and last a concluding word on the alumni.

What does such a book indicate about the University of Pennsylvania if it is the work of a representative product? One should be cautious about leaping to conclusions. Perhaps it was not intended as a serious history. Possibly it was written for popular sale among young alumni—a sort of sublimated commencement souvenir. But this is not the fact. The book is a serious venture. The foreword starts with the statement: "The history of our venerable university has never been written." On page 73 is the unchallengeable assertion: "After all, the campus and buildings are only the shell of the university. It is a history of the life within them which is important." And the book ends with the quotation (from Newman, is it not?) which includes as its focal sentence: "The essence of a university is a spirit, a principle of life and energy and influence."

In the light of such statements and quotations and of the actual content of the book, written by the "Alumni Secretary and editor of the Alumni Register," and in the assumption, not unfair, that his point of view is that of a large number of graduates of a large number of colleges and universities, one is forced to a conclusion about higher education in America which is far from exhilarating. The only impress of collegiate training upon these men is that it makes them willing to say things which are no part of their inherent belief. Ask them what a university is and they will quote the thing that ought to be said. Listen to their talk when they are not on guard and they will betray the fact (as they do at every kind of collegiate reunion) that their college or university has given them valued friendships, and beyond this a memory of pranks, town oddities, picturesque and innocuous adventures, and athletic thrills. This is particularly true of the college generations who went out into the world in the years overlapping 1900. In the last dozen years the proportion of self-supporting students and the pro-

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portion of prosperous students who regard mental industry as respectable have both increased, but the immense investment in athletic plants and the immense newspaper emphasis placed on athletic events, particularly Eastern football, tend to warp the minds of the undergraduates to no slight degree, and the professional alumnus does his uncalculated best to discount the real values of his institution by talking and acting as though it were the happy seat of an annual June jollification and the appendage to an autumnal football team. This volume on the University of Pennsylvania is not a worthy book, but it is not a negligible one, for it is written from a representative viewpoint and will, doubtless, receive a cordial reception. There is no reason in the world why pleasant gossip and jovial anecdote should not appear about the various colleges, but it should not be confused with history.

The opening sentence of the foreword is still indisputable: "The history of our venerable university has never been written." It is sincerely to be hoped that the friends and graduates of Pennsylvania who would like to have it treated as "a spirit, a principle of life and energy and influence" will find or provide an historian. Then those of us who would like to know, can join them in reading the record of its early classical days, its deeper academic traditions, its contributions to science, to the study of commerce and industry, to radical thought and enterprise, and to the cause of academic freedom.

The Harvard Law School

The Centennial History of the Harvard Law School, 1817-1917. Cambridge: The Harvard Law School Association.

AS like as not the primary business of an educational institution is to educate. To those who think so the history of a hundred years of the Harvard Law School will bring a glow. The record is one of teachers and students and of intellectual achievement. Of diamonds and gridirons and victories of brawn there is nothing to be told. The major sport is thinking, and of minor sports there are none. The official history of the school breathes the spirit that animates the grateful memories of its graduates. For what alumni remember of their days in the lecture rooms of Austin and Langdell is the exaltation of intellectual combat and coöperation between the group of keen and eager students and the inquiring, unfolding, expounding, and illuminating teacher. The ideal of Mark Hopkins and the log had its first expression elsewhere, but nowhere has it been more fully realized than in the Harvard Law School.

The peculiar contribution of the Harvard Law School is the discovery and shaping of a most superior log. The case method of study and instruction which was introduced by Langdell and developed by Ames only under fire of the severest criticism has at length won its way to almost universal approval. It has been adopted by every reputable law school in the country and has been borrowed with success in the presentation of other subjects to which it is appropriate. The outlines of the story are told in the centennial history, but the influence of the new departure is best indicated by the bibliographical list of over two hundred articles discussing the case method and auxiliary problems of legal education. It is a familiar saying among law students that the case method aims not so much to teach the law as to develop the legal mind. This legal mind has often been assumed by admirers and critics alike to belong to some strange genus. The dispute over its merits may perhaps be resolved by borrowing light from the familiar saying that figures do not lie, but liars will figure. The so-called legal mind is nothing but mind directing its attention to the phenomena of the law. It has no processes peculiar to itself. It is good or bad according to the endowments of its possessor. At its best it is the capacity which analyzes and differentiates, which rejects and accepts, and which builds from approved materials the structure which so embodies the spirit of the past as to give it freedom to expand to meet the needs of the present and to foresee those of the future. In its effort to develop this quality of mind the case method studies law not as a collection of final formulations but as a continual, never-ending process of growth and adjustment. In the hands of an enlightened teacher the case method enables the student to see how legal rules originate to meet an existing need and are formed in the light of existing customs and views of policy, and to see that as needs and customs and policies change so law must change also.

The history of the Harvard Law School prior to the accession of Langdell as dean in 1870 is important chiefly for the contrast between that half-century and the one that follows. Great names there were in those early days—Parker, Story, Washburne, Parsons, and Greenleaf; but they were greater as legal authors than as classroom teachers. It was the inauguration of the case method that made the school a really great educational institution and that spread its influence from the banks of the Charles to the banks of all our rivers. It may be doubted, however, whether the case method would have made its way against the conservatism of the time if it had not been wielded by teachers and scholars and men of unusual power. The volume under review modestly confines its biographical sketches to those whose teaching days are over, but one needs only to read the chronicles of Ames and Thayer and Gray and Smith to know that Langdell with the sympathetic coöperation of Eliot surrounded himself with men who could not fail to make an enduring impress upon the minds and hearts of those who had the privilege of their instruction. The preparation of the great series of case books to which the teachers of this time devoted themselves so unsparingly made impossible the writing of comprehensive treatises like those of their predecessors. Even a cursory glance at the appendix in the centennial volume which gives the bibliography of the writings of the faculty brings amazement that Langdell and Ames and Thayer and Gray and Williston and Beale could do so much. Not more than four or five of the teachers, past or present, in other law schools can be put in the same group of creative scholars with these great names. It is still unfortunately true that most of the law teachers of the country are content to train embryonic practitioners in the rudiments and methods of the law, and for want of industry or intellect or vision contribute but little to shaping the development of the law through clarification and criticism of the piecemeal work of the judges in the decision of controversies between litigants.

Never was the need of such clarification and criticism greater than it is today, when new conditions, new needs, and new conceptions of policy underlie so many of the current problems of social control through legislation and judicial decision. The contribution of Ames and his group to legal scholarship was preponderantly the genealogical study of legal doctrine, the tracing of the authentic pedigree of the law. They gave but faint adhesion to the famous dictum of Holmes that the life of the law is not logic but experience. There was need for their work, and it has permanent value. But these are days when logical deduction from historical foundations or unquestioned premises must be supplemented and to a considerable extent superseded by searching examination of the assumptions underlying the premises. The materials of legal study are no longer confined to law books. They are found also in the writings of philosophers and psychologists, of historians, economists, and sociologists, and all others who shed light on the nature of man and his environment. Law is but one of the many institutional forces by which the lives of individuals and groups are shaped and controlled, and no one of these forces liveth to itself alone. There are hints of this important inter-relation and of its meaning for the legal scholarship of the future in the biographical sketch of Ezra Thayer, whose deanship was between those of Ames and Pound, and in the chapter on "The Future." But the point is not elaborated, although (or because) Dean Pound is the distinguished leader of the newer group of scholars who

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are breaking down the artificial isolation of legal doctrine from the environment in which it originates, the ends it serves, and the sympathies it expresses, and are showing that what many still accept as an apocalypse is only the encystation in sheep and buckram of credos that have long since lost much of their hold elsewhere. But, notwithstanding this reserve, whether from modesty or the avoidance of controversial issues, those who are familiar with the work of Pound, and of Frankfurter, Scott, and Chafee, with its promise for the future, know that when the history of the present era comes to be written, it must record that the Harvard Law School did not rest on well-earned laurels but met the problems of a new day with the same vigor and vision that characterized the intellectual rebuilding of the school under Langdell and Ames.

If the Harvard Law School is losing some of its once unquestioned pre-eminence, it is not because it is falling behind in the race but because some of its friendly rivals are beginning to catch up with it. This lessening of the distance is due in no inconsiderable measure to the extent to which other law schools are manned by graduates of Harvard. There is hardly a law school in the country that does not acknowledge grateful indebtedness to the generous aid and encouragement of Ames or Pound. Under the more or less direct influence of Harvard there are today nearly a score of law schools giving a high type of professional training. It is to be hoped that the next half century will see a corresponding advance in the still more important work of leadership in the constructive adaptation of the law of the past to the needs of the present and the future. Particularly striking is the progress in this direction made by the Yale University Law School in the last few years. The time has passed when any educational institution that deserves the name can confine its ministrations to the young men and women temporarily within its walls. The bar and the bench in America need all the light and leading that the university law schools can give through the creative scholarship of their teachers and students.

Schools and Statistics

The Intelligence of School Children. By Lewis M. Terman. Houghton Mifflin Company.

School Statistics and Publicity. By Carter Alexander. Boston: Silver, Burdett and Company.

Experimental Education. By Robert R. Rusk. Longmans, Green and Co.

EVIDENTLY education is getting into the hands of men who have experience to put into it and who realize that scientific procedure in any field is an important labor-saving contrivance. The world war with its severe tests for purposes of grading and sorting has given, among other things, a new impetus to the work of intelligence measurements. Mr. Terman has shown that these methods may be applied in the school room to determine mental capacity. Such problems as promotion, the determining of courses of study, the education of gifted as well as sub-normal children, will acquire new significance in the light of his scientific investigation. The book is written primarily for grade teachers, but it will be useful also in teachers' study clubs and reading circles, valuable as an introductory text in normal schools, and worth reading by parents, especially of children varying in either direction from the norm. It will be helpful to superintendents of schools, since it emphasizes similarities and differences in the original endowment of children. Through intelligence measurements it is possible for a teacher to ascertain the effectiveness of her teaching; these may also be applied to problems of school administration, phenomena of attendance, and retardation; they may measure to some extent the growth of such qualities as definiteness, reliability, confidence, consistency; it is, however, not easy to estimate from year to year a child's growth in ideas of honor and altruism. In short, the writer's aim is to show the results of such mental tests put to everyday use in grade classification and in the general guidance of school children. Some of the workings of these intelligence tests are seen in the material on individual differences in the several grades, in the tests for school laggards, and especially in the study of the forty-one superior children. The rank and file of teachers should learn these tests—the Courtis tests, handwriting scales, tests of ability in reading, history, and composition. In many normal schools careful preparation for the Binet tests is given; with a little help the average teacher can prepare herself to use these standardized mental tests accurately enough for practical purposes. At the same time a teacher should be careful to regard all results in a tentative light, not passing judgment in doubtful or apparently pathological cases. In vocational guidance such tests will prove to be of the highest value.

School statistics are often ineffective because many educators do not know how to apply them, do not know how to present statistical materials effectively to the public. Mr. Carter Alexander's "School Statistics and Publicity" aims to make available to superintendents and classes in school administration the results of years of study in statistical theory, through reports and surveys for publicity purposes. For the school superintendent, as a publicist, must make his reports to the public, must explain situations which cause opposition to school appropriations, and satisfy unthinking taxpayers. Consequently reports containing simple and telling statistical devices are vitally necessary. We hear on every hand that reconstruction must follow the war. Now, reconstruction in the fields of finance, taxes, and revenues will be forced into the world of politics, but education will not feel the pressure of economic forces unless some crisis arises and the whole situation becomes visualized to the taxpayer. There must be some way of showing him the danger of the prevailing crisis in the administration of the schools. Hitherto, school affairs have been submerged; national taxes, political strifes, industrial readjustments, have been made far more prominent than educational reconstruction. It is the duty of the school superintendent to crystallize the desire of the public for educational progress; his chief agency will be publicity, his annual report. The object of this book is to show him how to make such a report readable to a community—intelligible and impressive. The layman, of course, is indifferent, or distrustful of all statistics. But a superintendent in whom they have confidence can make the subject seem important. He may graph his statistics, so that the essential facts of the whole and the essential details will stand out clearly. Or, he may translate them into words, transferring or interpreting into ordinary language the statistical ideas for the average man. Again, he may tabulate his results; rightly the tabulation should precede the graph or the translation—the graph being a pictorial representation of the significant facts, not unlike the cartoon. The aim of the book is to set forth typical errors in school statistics, and to indicate remedies for their ineffectiveness; it should help to arouse the public to give adequate support to the schools.

When the methods of laboratory psychology were applied in the solution of educational problems an experimental psychology was built up on scientific foundations; as one writer says, "Education had captured psychology." Experimental education now investigates all educational problems; it aims to present its data in exact quantitative terms, just as Pestalozzi insisted that all branches of instruction demand an analysis of their methods. Kant went so far as to say that experimental schools must first be established before we can have normal schools. These ideas are all set forth forcibly in "Experimental Education"; its distinguishing feature is its scientific analysis of problems concerning the child of school age. This means the investigation of his physical and his mental development, and the finding of suitable means of measuring it. In the school-room these laboratory results must be put to the test, and it is evident that here teachers can render most valuable service. The methods are those common to all the exact sciences—observation and

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experiment, and after these the sound application of statistical methods. On this basis the author takes up the general physical and mental development of the child, considering later his special powers—attention, apperception, memory, etc. In all this experimental work allowance is made for individual differences in children; through scientific tests one finds out how far these are due to natural endowment, or to environment and training. Such a method is of the same advantage in education as it is in industrialism, since in both fields economic loss to the individual and to the community is prevented; there are also accruing social and moral advantages. We are coming to realize that methods of teaching are today not so important as are methods of learning; we have begun to suspect that a pupil's method of learning may not correspond with the method of teaching; he may be learning in spite of the teaching method. Through processes of intelligent measurement, work done under favorable conditions, or under fatigue, lassitude, distractions, or unusual stimuli, will be indicated by the gradual rise or fall of the work-curve. On this basis the psychology and pedagogy of school subjects are experimentally and specifically treated, processes in reading, handwriting, orthography, and arithmetic being selected by the author for study. These give objective standards of the pupils' progress, help to measure the results of the methods of instruction, aid in verifying new lines of procedure; and here is where the work of the teacher can be of the greatest value. This book will serve as an introduction to students of educational problems, and in the work of experimental education; success will depend on the coöperative activity of the army of school workers.

The Vitality of Virgil

The Death of Turnus. Observations on the Twelfth Book of the Aeneid. By W. Warde Fowler. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell.

THERE is a spot on the Palatine near the so-called wall of Romulus from which, as on a chronological map, is visible nearly the whole history of the eternal city. Rome of the kings, of the republic, of the emperors, of the popes—vestiges of it all are spread out before you: a fragment of wall whose huge stones seem to have been lifted into place by Titans; the floor and broken columns of a great basilica; palaces of vast extent and unimaginable splendor; fading images of saints on the walls of a mighty church underneath the dwelling-place of the Cæsars. Here they lie in a discord that is yet a harmony—Vestal virgins and the Virgin of the Catholic Faith; a triumphal arch erected by a Pagan emperor to commemorate the sack of the Temple at Jerusalem; Christian mosaics decorating the dome of a heathen sanctuary. Here in epitome is the long chronicle of Rome, and over it broods the spirit of Virgil. It is his image rather than that of Garibaldi which should dominate the city from the heights above the Vatican. For of it all he and his poetry are a great part. He has recorded it, unified it, given it meaning, conferred upon it an immortality more sure than that of bronze. Even during the Christian centuries, little as they understood him, his influence hardly waned. He moves through them, as Statius says of him in the Divine Comedy, like one who bears a light behind him, illuminating all the path over which his race has come. Without him the book that more than any other interprets for us the mind of the Catholic ages could not have been what it is. He is today the spokesman of modern Italy, and his language may still be heard on the lips of her children. To them he is far nearer, far more contemporary, than is Chaucer to modern Englishmen. Pronounced as his verse commonly is by Italians, with the values of Italian vowels and consonants, the Aeneid loses all its archaism and dates with Dante or Carducci.

It is important to remember this, for this is what gives Virgil a modernity that is denied to any of his contemporaries—even to Horace—and it is the perception of this that renders the Virgilian studies of certain English scholars—Mackail and Myers, for example—so valuable and so delightful. Among them, three little books of Mr. W. Warde Fowler deserve a place of honor. In 1916 he published a running commentary on the last two hundred lines of the seventh Aeneid, under the title, "The Gathering of the Clans," and in 1917 a similar commentary on the eighth Book, called "Aeneas at the Site of Rome." He has now followed these by a study of Book XII, which he names "The Death of Turnus." Each of these volumes contains a critical text of the passage under discussion, and the first of them includes a verse translation—a feature which, in our judgment, Mr. Fowler would have done well to continue. They are all pervaded by a conception that makes the whole difference between good literary editing and bad: they conceive Virgil as a living poet, and in the hands of teachers who can assimilate their method, they will go far towards forming a generation of young students to whom the Virgilian tradition may safely be committed.

Everything is here that ought to be for such a purpose. There is scholarship in abundance, but there are the precious fruits of it, too. There is, for example, a good deal of rather minute verbal discrimination—a thing inevitable in dealing with the "lord of language." To the lack of such discrimination are due the coarseness and clumsiness of much modern writing. For the truth is that all the masters of literary art have cared for words, have desired to express adequately "the vision within," and so have not been content with approximations or substitutes or compromises. To assume, indeed, that expression takes care of itself is to deny the primary law of letters—with what result to much current taste we see. The brief discourse on the verb *lustrare* in the sense of "a slow ordered movement in procession" (p. 96), the distinction between *ater* and *niger* (p. 93), and the comment upon *corusci* (p. 122) illustrate this aspect of Mr. Fowler's method.

But there are other aspects still more admirable and fruitful. There is the emphasis upon Virgil's mind, upon his attitude towards his material, upon the great moral and social end that he had in view. Mr. Fowler's interpretation will give little comfort to those who assume that the greatest of artists have no other end than art. With all his allusion and reminiscence and far-sought verbal magic, the poet, who in the Georgics had aimed to glorify rural Italy, so in the Aeneid aimed to glorify Rome and its makers—its august memories and lofty virtues, its mighty past and still more mighty future. To this end all the resources of his art are directed—from the passion of the fourth Book and the mysticism of the sixth to the touching and symbolic duel with which the story closes. To this end is devoted his amazing architectural skill, not to be matched by any narrative poet ancient or modern save the poet of the Odyssey. In this light must be interpreted his marvellous use of landscape and the affectionate fashion in which Italian place-names linger in his verse. As Myers says of the magnificent "bead-roll" of the eighth Book, with every name he confers an immortality. In nothing, however, are the poet's resources more evident than in his skill in evading the details of battle. Over all the Virgilian battlefields, and they are, in the nature of the case, many and bloody, broods a divine pity, the Virgilian tenderness, surely the most exquisite type of tenderness in literature. The pomp and circumstance of war are to him what they have become to us—less than the last thought of the Argive soldier who, dying, remembers Argos. This, we are aware, is all hackneyed and commonplace enough. This is only the Virgilian romanticism, "the sense of tears in mortal things." We mention it only because in it and in qualities like it resides Virgil's permanent hold upon the heart of the world.

Finally, Mr. Fowler lays stress, as he was bound to do, upon the poet's glorification of youth. The second half of the Aeneid is a boy's book—and a girl's, if we remember Lavinia and Juturna and Camilla. The fleeting bloom of adolescence is upon it. Turnus is the true hero of it, from the reader's point of view, and he, though pitted against the grizzled Aeneas, is

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only a passionate boy. Mr. Fowler's defence of the reading *pubentes* (pp. 65, 66) is an illustration of what scholarship, in humane hands, will do for poetry. Lausus and Pallas are hardly more than children, and in commenting upon their early death and their parents' grief, Mr. Fowler takes occasion to dwell upon *pietas*, that solemn obligation of the child to the parent and of the parent to the child that is one of the glories of Roman ethics and one of the beauties of the Aeneid. We must not pause upon the indescribable loveliness of the episode of Nisus and his boy-friend Euryalus, nor upon the pervasive presence, in these last books, of the child Ascanius. By such deeds and natures as theirs, young as they are, man "rises to the stars." Virgil's vow has been fulfilled. He has made the memory of these boy-heroes of his as immortal as Rome itself.

The Dragon on the Table

The Evolution of the Dragon. By G. Elliot Smith. Longmans, Green and Co.

PRESUMABLY having exhausted his titular subject so far as usual material is concerned, the Professor of Anatomy of the University of Manchester indulges in the demonstration of a specimen out of the ordinary; none other than that ancient enemy of mankind, the Dragon, which he tracks to its far-distant lair, and boldly, like another Saint George, drags forth and dismembers before our eyes. It is no simple exploit, especially the dismembering. So complex does the anatomy of the Dragon prove, to "such a fantastic paradox of contradictions" as the result of the fancies of men of every race and land has he grown (we assume the gender), that we cannot be too thankful at his having fallen into hands expert at once in anatomy and anthropology. The Dragon is no mere yesterday's acquaintance, nor is he the creature of a single people or place. He is "the most venerable symbol employed in ornamental art and the favorite and most highly decorative motif in artistic design," "has been the inspiration of much, if not most, of the world's great literature in every age and clime, and the nucleus around which a wealth of ethical symbolism has accumulated throughout the ages," and "represents also the earliest doctrine or systematic theory of astronomy and meteorology." He is the English dragon, the Chinese dragon, the dragon from which Perseus rescued Andromeda, the dragon of the Mayas, the dragon of the Siebengebirge, the dragon of nurse's tales, and the great red dragon of Revelation, that old serpent called the Devil, all at the same time. There is no Dragon but one Dragon, and Professor Smith locates his den somewhere in southwest Asia or northeast Africa, whence he ranged over the whole earth, travelling in one main direction to Greece and western Europe, and in the other to Cambodia, Indonesia, and America, first reaching the New World by way of northeast Asia and later by way of Polynesia, the different routes and periods being responsible for well-known variations in Central America and elsewhere. It is interesting, too, and gratifying as well, in the light of his general reputation, to be told on good authority that he was originally a good dragon, "a beneficent creature, the personification of water, and identified with kings and gods." If there is anything else that should recommend him to the merciful memory of the modern generation, it is that wherever he is found he "displays a special partiality for water."

Professor Smith's book, with its three lectures on "Incense and Libations," "Dragons and Rain Gods," and "The Birth of Aphrodite," would be hard to describe by any title, but if its most original and significant contributions to thought were to determine, it would be better to call it "The Origin and Distribution of Religion." The evolution of the Dragon is only a detail in the larger speculation, though a closely interwoven detail.

The cardinal facts in the origin of religion, according to these lectures, were as follows. The great object of man's aspiration was a something, amulet or elixir, which would enable him to prolong existence. In the earliest stage, before he possessed definite ideas as to the physiology of animal reproduction, and before he appreciated the importance of vegetable fertility or had created a god in his own image at all, he had seen in the cowry-shell, which resembled the female life-giving organ, an amulet which increased fertility, and had come to regard it as "the actual parent of mankind, the creator of all living things." Having next personified the cowry as an actual woman in the form of a statuette, he had developed the Great Mother, "the first deity that the wit of man devised to console him with her watchful care over his welfare in this life and to give him assurance as to his fate in the future." The first male god, however, was a development after the coming of agriculture and the framing of a theory regarding the fertilizing powers of water. Here Professor Smith is a Euhemerist. A king whose beneficent irrigation projects brought him renown and the love of his subjects, having obtained a human-blood elixir at the hands of the Great Mother received a new grant of vitality in the next world, and became the god Osiris. Hence all religion. "Osiris was the prototype of all the gods; his ritual was the basis of all religious ceremonial; his priests who conducted the animating ceremonies were the pioneers of a long series of ministers who for more than fifty centuries, in spite of the endless variety of details of their ritual and the character of their temples, have continued to perform ceremonies that have undergone remarkably little essential change." "These early strivings provided the foundations upon which has been built up during the last fifty centuries a vast and complex theory of the soul." As for the Dragon, his first form as a benevolent beast was Osiris, the Nile, the fertilizer of the fields. As an evil being he first appears as the Great Mother Hathor herself, conceived as the enemy of mankind in dragon guise because of her slaying the human victim in order to get the blood elixir necessary for the rejuvenation of the king. Thereafter the Dragon, both as a good and as an evil power, becomes, by more or less subtle processes of the primitive mind, associated with Horus as well as with Osiris and Hathor. In the first pictorial representation he appears as "a monster compounded of the lioness of Hathor with the falcon (or eagle) of Horus, but with the human attributes and water-controlling powers which originally belonged to Osiris." Even this, however, was comparatively simple. Professor Smith finds that Babylonia, too, contributed, through Ea the fish-deity, and that "the real dragon was created when all three larval types—serpent, eagle-lion, and antelope-fish—were blended to form a monster with bird's feet and wings, a lion's forelimbs and head, the fish's scales, the antelope's horns, and a more or less serpentine form of trunk and tail, and sometimes also of head. Repeated substitution of parts of other animals, such as the spiral horn of Amen's ram, a deer's antlers, and the elephant's head, led to endless variations in the dragon's traits."

Professor Smith's book is not very well named, not very well ordered, and not always carefully phrased. The reader who pursues a way through the difficulties of repetition, digression, diffuseness, poor typography, absence of index, and the cinematographical method, so to speak, of "throwing on" evidence, will wish that the author, or the John Rylands Library, at whose instance he publishes, had allowed a little more time for their tasks. That the John Rylands Library "gave no choice" is an explanation, hardly an excuse. It is in spite of faults of arrangement that the book has a unity; which is due to the frequent recurrence of its two particular ideas, first, the practical origin of religious worship, and second, its world-wide distribution from a single definite centre and consequent oneness. The same two ideas, with an abundance of corollaries which the "amazingly complex jumble of this tissue of confusion" in the relations of the gods of Egypt and Babylonia makes possible and invites, are also what give "The Evolution of the Dragon" an exceedingly stimulative quality. Its author is independent, original, and outspoken; perhaps the

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more so because he is, in a manner, a free lance, and approaches the subject "with a mind undebauched by classical schcolarship." He contradicts Sir James Frazer, "the guardian of the Golden Bough," Miss Jane Harrison of the Prolegomena, and Tylor with his theory of animism, not to mention the great Freud and others too numerous to mention. He is fertile to the point of exuberance. The execution of the investigational intentions let fall here and there throughout the book would—perhaps it is safe to say, will—result in a library of dimensions. In fact, Professor Smith will impress the reader not *too* familiar with the ways of anthropology as plethoric with ideas.

We hasten to say, however, that the trait is not wholly personal, but is to be credited in the main to the branch of learning Professor Smith here represents. For difficult explanations of easy things and for easy explanations of difficult things; for the construction of total theories on the foundation of single fragments of evidence; for the transformation of hypothesis into fact at the call of convenience; for detecting essential and significant relationships in merest accidental resemblance; for overdriving and overshooting, and for "seeing things" in general, the "science" of anthropology, or ethnology, or comparative mythology or religion—whichever we choose to call study of this kind—has established a reputation second to none. For these things, and for its eye single to the glory of religion. What sort of a world was it in which our primitive ancestors moved? Did primitive man never laugh or weep unless with a religious significance? Did he never amuse himself except in some worshipful way? Did he never draw an outline or mould a figure just for the pure pleasure of it? Did he never make a toy image for himself or his children. Could protection against heat or cold or inconvenience have had anything to do with clothing? Could a pot or a pillar ever have been just decorated, or a shell worn just because it pleased female fancy? Was there ever a non-religious thought or act? Impossible, says anthropological "science," which is always as solemnly serious as it seems to make our primeval progenitor: cremation was an attempt to send the body to the sky-world; a tree planted on a grave "is developed from and becomes the personification of "the deceased"; trephining among the ancient peoples was "to afford a more ready passage for the 'vital essence' to and from the skull"; the wand of the Egyptian king was a conventionalized representation of the uterus; the octopus on a vase is a personification of Aphrodite; a pot modelled into woman's form is always a Mother-pot; fifty centuries of trouble inspired by gold "were let loose upon the world as the result of the circumstance that early searchers for an elixir of life used the valueless metal to make imitations of their shell amulets." The unanthropologized reader is impelled to the recollection of a certain stone from hoary antiquity bearing the legend BILSTUMPSHISMARK, and "that celebrated scientific discussion so well known to all men as the Pickwickian controversy"; or to speculate on what the comparative religionists of fifty centuries hence will say, at this rate, in explanation of the fragments of twentieth century mechanical dolls, or the maple leaf of neighbor Canada, or the possibly surviving outlines of the Bull Durham Beast, or other expression of our modern worshipful habits. Ah, mechanical cult-images, beyond a doubt; unmistakably tree-worship in the twentieth century; a beneficent Dragon with the symbols of fruitfulness, and incense was burned to him! As he looks out upon the number of non-reverent things in the life of today, and then into the comparative religionist's book again on the monotonously uniform, unsmiling religiosity of primitive man, no wonder he suspects that comparative religion is positive *monomania*.

These latter reflections we set down not as with sinister intent to detract from "The Evolution of the Dragon," which is a highly acute and stimulating work, or from the speculations of anthropology in general, which is doing a great deal toward helping man to know himself, as well as to find amusement; but as recording the effect of anthropological doctrine upon what is called the "discriminating" reader.

American University Criticism

The Cambridge History of American Literature. Edited by William Peterfield Trent, John Erskine, Stuart P. Sherman, and Carl Van Doren. Volume Two. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE difficulties that beset the editors of a coöperative undertaking have been for the most part overcome in this "History." In critical method the various chapters are more closely harmonized than are many of the contributions to the great history of English literature to which the present work is a sort of supplement. The criterion here followed is that of American academic criticism at its best. With much gain in unity of thought and treatment there is also, of course, some loss. What we have is a chronicle of facts more often than an analysis and interpretation of literary values even in the chapters dealing with the two poets whose influence has extended furthest beyond the United States and concerning whose literary achievement, therefore, some detailed interpretation and appreciation were manifestly most necessary—Poe and Whitman. Yet Professor Campbell writes almost entirely of Poe's life and character. There are some excellent remarks upon his work as a critic, but to his poetry only a page and a half is granted, and the views therein expressed are not illustrated and justified by the quotation of a single line of his verse. The case is similar and even more marked in Professor Holloway's chapter on Whitman. This is almost entirely biographic, a most discriminating and impartial study of his character and career, with evident sympathy rather with the man than with his work, and with side-glances only at that which makes Whitman worth studying—his poetry. The same characteristic of American criticism is seen in Professor Trent's chapter on Longfellow. The critic defends Longfellow's poetry and its enormous contemporary popularity by a sort of quiet irony at the expense of the tastes of to-day. "We are less sentimental and more widely travelled" than our grandfathers, he remarks; but these are "facts which of course do not warrant us in arrogating to ourselves a taste necessarily superior to theirs." The question, all-important for the literary historian, "Why did (or does) such-and-such a work please?" is not frequently answered in the work. Fortunately, however, in the chapters on the lesser poets, for the most part, this aspect of the critic's function is not overlooked; Timrod, Lanier, Tabb, and others are interpreted and illustrated in a way of which the writers upon the greater poets have not generally availed themselves. Exception to this statement must be made in the case of Dr. W. M. Payne's pleasant study of Whittier. So also in the chapter upon Holmes and other writers of "Familiar Verse" (most happily and appropriately assigned to Professor Brander Matthews), comment upon their work is not overwhelmed by mere biographical facts.

To each of the many remaining chapters we have space to devote only a few words. In the opening chapter of the volume Professor MacMechan exhibits the sympathy that one would expect from him with one side of Thoreau's character and achievement, but we close his study with a sense chiefly of the so-called "solitary's" limitations: his self-deception, his "sermonizing," his lack of a feeling for form, his aloofness from the great problems among which he lived. Professor Thorndike's praise of Lowell's idealism, broad humanity, and culture is tempered by severe strictures upon his shortcomings in technique and the waste of his talents upon too many diverse subjects. In Professor Erskine's study of Hawthorne, the theme, illustrated by frequent apt references to persons and situations in the romances, is the conflict which arose in Hawthorne's mind when he applied what we now call the "acid test" of actuality to the theories of the Transcendentalists. The doctrine of compensation, for instance, a doctrine "peculiarly dear to Transcendental optimism," is shown simply not to work out in the actual world, where, as in "The House of the Seven Gables," suffering does not lead to spiritual profit, and innocence is not sweetened by the patient bearing of old wrongs.

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In companion studies of the poets of the Civil War, North and South, Professors Howe and Mims, working along parallel lines, employ the various poems to illustrate the successive stages in the conflict and the changes in mood as the war dragged on. We are glad to note that due praise is given to Randall's "My Maryland," the most memorable poem inspired by the war. Dr. Miles's article on "The New South" includes what is often lacking in these essays—some consideration of the social, political, and economic background of the literature criticised. This chapter is followed by a genial study of "Dialect Writers" by Professor C. Alphonso Smith, who devotes much of the space at his command to the delightful creations of Joel Chandler Harris. In a remarkably well "articulated" paper Professor Pattee traces the growth of "The Short Story" from Irving, through Poe, to Bret Harte, whose "Luck of Roaring Camp" "stampeded America and for two decades set the style in short fiction." Dr. Pattee's narrative is continued through the work of Stockton, Bierce, and others to Jack London and O. Henry. After this climax it is good to read the judicious summary that "on the whole the short story episode in American literary history has been a symptom not of strength but of weakness. . . . It has been satisfied with cleverness rather than mastery, entertainment rather than instruction [surely not blameworthy], with journalism rather than literature." Writing on "Books for Children," Professor Tassin traces the change in attitude from didacticism to entertainment and succeeds in extracting from his theme more entertainment than the reviewer (with memories of "Peter Parley" and the "Rollo Books" vividly before him) had dared to expect. Professor Howe's account of "Early Humorists" is in the nature of an introduction to the chapter on Mark Twain, for which we must await the forthcoming third volume of the "History."

Several chapters deal with other branches of literature than *belles-lettres*. Senator Lodge's invertebrate and unfortunate article on Webster may be passed over with the remark that he considers, in a rambling way, the intermixture of the qualities of literature and oratory in Webster's style, with more discussion of the general characteristics of oratory than there was really room for in this crowded volume. Professor McLaughlin, in an excellent study of "Publicists and Orators," does not yield to the temptation that might have pressed upon a professor of history to disregard the literary side of his theme. Miss Ruth Putnam, writing on Prescott and Motley, introduces more "human interest" than is usual or altogether appropriate in such a setting and depends to an extraordinary degree upon quotations from contemporary critics of the two historians for her estimate of their work. Professor Bassett's account of "Writers on American History" is in the nature of an epitome of the chapters in his larger work dealing with the same subject. Professor Scott tells of the development of newspapers to the foundation of *The New York Times*, and Professor Cairns gives the parallel story of the magazines and "Gift-Books" and "Annuals" (those curious phenomena of the mid-nineteenth century). In an essay that shows noteworthy grasp of the philosophic implications of his theme Dr. Wolff studies the Congregational and Unitarian Divines and Moralists, giving most attention to Beecher and Mark Hopkins, and throwing new light upon the relations that have existed in the United States between the professions of theology and literature, particularly in the early part of the nineteenth century when the old clerical families were becoming secularized.

The editors' prefatory warning that "the division into volumes is . . . fortuitous" makes us unwilling to call attention to omissions from the work, and we must look to the final volume to fill up certain gaps which nevertheless still appear to us. The decision, announced also in the preface, to include certain living writers within the scope of this "History" is an excellent one. For the exhaustive and admirably arranged bibliographies (occupying a third of the volume), for the printing and general appearance of the book, and for the many evidences of patient editorial supervision there can be nothing but praise.

Books in Brief

AMERICAN LITERATURE AND IDEALS

"CENTURY Readings for a Course in American Literature" (Century) edited by Professor Fred Lewis Pattee easily surpasses all its predecessors in the field. The question of course remains whether it is better in teaching literature to ask students to read selections from the works of many writers or to require them to master the works of only a few; but on whichever side of the argument we stand we must praise Professor Pattee for having done practically all that can be done to help those teachers who choose the first of the two methods. If in his concern for the essentially native elements of our literature he has omitted from his collection all who wrote before 1800 except Franklin, Washington, Freneau, Timothy Dwight, Royall Tyler, Alexander Wilson, and Charles Brockden Brown, without a line of Edwards, Woolman, Crèvecoeur, Jefferson, or Hamilton, he has at least put his stress where it chiefly belongs, and has made impossible the confusion into which students are often thrown upon finding themselves in a wilderness of unfamiliar authors most of whom though interesting to specialists are generally interesting to specialists alone. By this initial economy Professor Pattee is enabled to represent the nineteenth century with remarkable wealth and variety of matter. Our popular poetry—political and sentimental—is excellently represented, and some of the greater hymns; there are thirty short stories so well chosen to illustrate the development of their type that the American short story may be better studied here than anywhere else; and copious extracts from fiction, history, and essays (particularly literary criticism), with a scantier showing from oratory, biography, and drama. Nor does Professor Pattee content himself entirely with the established authors whom all our students have read in the orthodox courses; he finds room also for Audubon, Richard Henry Dana, Jr., Melville, Ik Marvel, the Civil War humorists, Lew Wallace, Constance Fenimore Woolson, John Muir, Lafcadio Hearn, Hamlin Garland, Jack London, and O. Henry. Of his nine hundred double-column pages he devotes one-fifteenth to the eighteenth century, one-ninth to the generation 1800-1830, one-third to the New England renaissance, a little less than one-sixth to the Civil War, and one-third to the period since 1870—about half, that is, to the material produced this side the charmed circle of the Elder Classics. The doctrines of Professor Pattee's invaluable "American Literature since 1870" are thus followed, with the result that a considerable body of excellent writing is for the first time made accessible to students with moderate libraries at hand. The Newcomer-Andrews-Hall collection, "Three Centuries of American Poetry and Prose," devoted but twenty pages to what Professor Pattee calls "The National Period," 1870-1914, as against his three hundred. The open and energetic spirit shown in this shift of emphasis appears as well in the choice of authors and of their particular works, though no love of originality has been allowed to crowd out the standard performances which are standard because they are good. In fact, Professor Pattee unites so well a sound conservative judgment with a catholic liberal taste that few will quarrel with him except on those minor points of personal taste in which no anthologist can hope to please every one. The present reviewer would have liked to find in the book something from David Crockett's "Autobiography," most racy of all frontier books, from Charles Warren Stoddard's "South Sea Idyls," and by all odds something from Josiah Royce, William James, and George Santayana. Succinct characterizations of each author accompany the text, and there are useful notes at the end of the volume.

Compared with so free and masterly a compilation the "Selections from American Literature" (Rand McNally) by Professor Leonidas Warren Payne, Jr., seems cramped and "classical." Statistics here are criticism enough: Irving (the earliest author

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included) has 31 pages, Cooper 10, Bryant 18, Whitman 12, Emerson 37, Longfellow 84 (including the whole of "Evangeline"), Whittier 29, Holmes 20, Thoreau 13, Lowell 33, Poe 65, Timrod 8, Hayne 3, Lanier 7, O. Henry 19, Lincoln 4, Mark Twain 7, Bret Harte 14, Joaquin Miller 5, Eugene Field 4, Riley 5, and Moody 3—and these are all. Nearly one-fourth of the entire volume is given up to notes which, though often cumbersome and superfluous, are vastly safe and sane, like the various selections in the text.

Two somewhat related books are less traditional in their method. "The World and Democracy" (Rand McNally) edited by Lyman P. Powell and Charles M. Curry has as its motto "Patriotism through Literature," and it brings together, in a mixture that already begins to seem slightly faded, addresses, essays, letters, poems, stories, a play, and a pageant—all sounding the high impassioned note which men heard with the ears of their passion during the war. Not only the louder voices of the time appear but many grave, more reasoned ones as well. And yet rarely does criticism in any of these touch actual events, or, at least, events as they appear in the light of subsequent developments. Everywhere is a radiant confidence that the highest liberal aims, expounded again and again with moving eloquence, are identical with the current policy of the Allied and Associated Powers. The heart of the volume beats in the utterance of the boys and young men, whether they were plain young fellows writing home their shy sentiments in awkward letters, or poets triumphant and ecstatic. Nothing can detract from the glory of their courage and devotion. The stories are less appealing than the letters and poems, generally machine-made or close to expansive journalism. This is also generally true of "Winning a Cause: World War Stories" (Silver, Burdett), by John Gilbert Thompson and Inez Bigwood, a school reader with a good deal of pinchbeck material and easy emotionalism. Such books as these are the seed of many myths, often high-minded and generous, but still myths.

IF there were excellent short stories which the editors of the foregoing compilations did not find, neither have the editors of "War Stories" (Crowell), Roy J. Holmes and A. Starbuck, succeeded in finding them. Restricting themselves to "American authors, American characters, American reactions," and aiming to represent as many aspects of the war as possible, the editors have selected twenty-one stories of which none have exceptional merit. In not a few, such as Dana Burnet's exciting "Christmas Fight of X157," simple narration dwarfs the plot element; others, such as Alden Brooks's crude story "Out of the Sky," are merely sketches of novels. One gathers from the preface that the book is intended primarily for college classes in the "Technic of the Short Story." For classes of returned soldiers and sailors it may have value; for ordinary classes it is more remote from the experience of the student than a collection of Russian or Scandinavian stories dealing with normal life.

TO a very remarkable degree Mr. C. H. Ward's edition of Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America" (Scott, Foresman) is abominable and dangerous. "If every high-school student," the preface begins, "knew that the governmental oppression that caused the American Revolution was 'made in Germany,' our democracy would be more secure." And the Introduction is made up of three sections, as follows: The German Foe of English Freedom, George III; The Champion of English Freedom, Edmund Burke; The Triumph of German Intrigue in 1775. Mr. Ward, a master at the Taft School, plainly thinks that his edition of a great political classic is a patriotic service. As a matter of fact, by his atrocious obscurantism he is doing what will hurt every school boy to whom this book comes. There are already enough adults who sit in the seats of complacence and heap upon the head of scapegoat Germany all the sins they do not care to expiate—the sins in this case of Anglo-Saxon reactionism, of which both Britons and Americans have been guilty. Does Mr. Ward think he is serving the better interests of his country when he sets out to make such Pharisees among children?

AVIATION

FLYING still draws its exponents more from the hangar than from the laboratory. Although Benjamin M. Carmina had reached the halfway house of an instructorship in the Y. M. C. A. Airplane Mechanics' School before writing his "Aviation" (Macmillan), he gives the impression of being more a flyer than a flying authority. "Therico-Practical," a phrase of his sub-title, is suggestive of the value of his work. No one could read "Aviation" without learning something of flight and flying machines. At the same time the work is hybrid in nature, having neither the simplicity and readability which assist the beginner to comprehend the construction and flight of an aeroplane nor the solidity demanded by a reader seeking a reference authority. "Aviation," reads the first sentence of the book, "is the branch of aeronautics that treats of gasless aircraft." Few who realize that all the manœuvres of a dirigible, including ascent and descent, are effected by the motor and the plane surfaces of the tail can accept this definition. Passages occur throughout the volume which are of a similar nature. The desire to be accurate seems to lead Mr. Carmina into intricacy and difficulty. There are, however, many happy expository passages, and the reader determined to dig through to an understanding of flight will struggle through the difficult chapters and enjoy the simpler ones. Theory of flight, process of aeronautical construction, etc., are diagramed. The works of Fales, Loening, and others have done much of what Mr. Carmina attempts, and in many respects have done it better. "Aviation," nevertheless, has the value of a more recent and a slightly more thorough treatment than these books present.

THE reader who has never touched the controls of an aeroplane will be little interested in "Air Navigation," by Captain S. F. Card (Longmans, Green). It is a book for those (now tens of thousands) who have flown or have been associated with flying. Captain Card knows his subject thoroughly, and though he requires no technical knowledge of his readers, writes so meatily and concisely that only those seeking practical information will read. British flyers should find the book valuable. It covers all questions of aerial navigation on which a flyer would seek information. American aviators, however, will find a treatment of the subject, which the United States Schools of Military Aeronautics covered in a different way, somewhat confusing, and will be more attracted to existing American handbooks, which follow more the method in which they were instructed. Such chapters as "Joining Up with a Squadron" may, nevertheless, have a value—based on the greater experience of the Royal Air Forces with actual conditions on a battle front—which an American treatment of air navigation might lack.

OF considerable use also to the many persons now looking for instruction with regard to flight, its future, and its commercial possibilities, is the "Aircraft Yearbook" (Manufacturers Aircraft Association). The doings of fourteen American aeroplane companies from 1908 to 1919 are chronicled readably. These furnish the only information available to date—outside of Government reports—with respect to industrial aviation, and offer an especially complete account of the aerial war activity of the nation in office and factory. Illustrations of practically every standard aeroplane, hydroaeroplane, and aeronautical engine in the United States are also valuable. Indeed, the reader is given an idea of the American flying industry as a whole—personnel, performances, size, and potentialities. The association of such purely historical matter with lists of government officials, aeronautical bibliographies, library classifications, etc., is incongruous; it is something of a shock to turn from the story of the JN-4 training plane or the Hispano-Suiza motor to a metrical conversion table.

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THE BIBLE IN ENGLISH

"A BOOK about the English Bible" (Macmillan) by Professor J. H. Penniman is a readable manual of information for a popular audience or for undergraduates. The style is simple, the diction untechnical, the arrangement clear. There are chapters on the form of Hebrew poetry, on the background of the Old Testament and of the New, on the historical books, on the wisdom books, and on the prophets; and, finally, a series of chapters (nearly a fourth of the entire volume) dealing with the growth of the English Bible. Throughout, the author's attitude is that of one lecturing *virginibus puerisque*. Thus on page 42 we are told that the immortality of the soul is set forth in the Old Testament in a number of passages, which the author proceeds to quote; only in a footnote does he tactfully suggest that perhaps these passages do not actually refer to individual immortality at all—as indeed they do not. In other instances the author seems needlessly cautious about upsetting traditional opinions. The inclusion of the book of Jonah among the pre-exilic prophets, for example, and the author's apparent obliviousness to the fact that scholars now generally regard the whole story as a parable of Israel's providential history seen in the light of the exile and the restoration, seem the result either of extreme conservatism or of a lack of familiarity with the best modern biblical scholarship. To such unfamiliarity must be attributed the writer's treatment of Ecclesiastes xii, 13, 14, as an inherent part of Koheleth's thought, when the passage is almost certainly the attempt of some pious Jewish rabbi to render the book more orthodox, and hence more acceptable to those who objected on the ground of Koheleth's scepticism to the inclusion of his book in the canon of the Jewish Scriptures. Even more amazing still is Professor Penniman's willingness to accept Deuteronomy at its face value, without a hint that he recognizes in it a book written under the influence of prophetic ideals and found in the Temple in the time of Joshua. It is to be regretted that the writer makes no more use of his knowledge of the classics and of English literature to emphasize such literary relations and analogies as the very interesting one pointed out on page 204 between Canticles and the Idylls of Theocritus. Still more regrettable is his ignoring the relation between much of our modern thinking and the work of the prophets. The prophets actually get scant attention in the volume as compared with the priests and the sages, only sixteen pages being apportioned to them in comparison with the thirty-six devoted to a survey of Job, and the nine allotted to the Song of Solomon. The very brief comment on the individual prophets is neither sympathetic nor particularly illuminating. No reference is made to their permanent contributions to the world's stock of ethical ideas. Amos's plea for social justice, Micah's summary of religion, Ezekiel's plan for a religious Utopia, and Deutero-Isaiah's insistence that God's highest call is the call to serve, are alike ignored. Yet in spite of its limitations and omissions the book will, no doubt, be useful in acquainting its public with a literature as yet too little known.

CHOICE OF VOCATION

EVERY lover of mankind will readily agree that in a democracy the advantages of vocational guidance should not be limited to particular classes in the community. It would be unjust to proffer a helping hand to those who look forward to becoming floor-walkers, window-dressers, insurance agents, or employment managers and to withhold advice from embryonic lawyers, college presidents, United States Senators, and Chautauqua lecturers. It is evident that a worthy philanthropic motive has animated Mr. Frederick J. Allen in the preparation of his seventy-six page study of "The Law as a Vocation" (Harvard University Press). A more unimportant book on an important topic is hard to imagine. The one-page introduction contributed by Professor William Howard Taft is in keeping with the innocuous character of the body of the work. The genial ex-President assures us that lawyers are important and will continue to be so. Mr. Allen tells us that with judicial decisions "and other legal material the lawyer is bound to have some acquaintance," that "he also spends time writing letters, and doing sundry business incidental to giving advice to his clients," and that "the clients with whom the lawyer has to do are of all sorts." The public offices which require legal training in the incumbent are enumerated, the qualities which make the successful lawyer are named, the degrees conferred on graduates of law schools are catalogued, and the value of excellent professional training and of strict requirements for admission to the bar is duly emphasized. It may be that there are those who need and will appreciate the information and advice which Mr. Allen offers. Certain it is that the little volume can do no harm to any man.

ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

THE most marked characteristic of the "Introduction to Economics" (Scribners) of Professor John R. Turner is his recognition of the claims of the student. Too frequently the needs of the class-room have been subordinated to the logical development of the author's own scheme of thought. Professor Turner's language is non-technical; his arguments move forward with precision; and from first to last his treatment is clear-cut and consistent. The text is interspersed with interesting quotation from a wide variety of sources. Even the "Mutt and Jeff" cartoons enter the book to give point to an argument. If there is to be criticism it is that the author has enlivened his book with the "hippodrome" that belongs more properly in the class-room. As a teaching device the volume will satisfy those instructors who put at the head of their lists of pedagogical values a clear exposition aimed to remove all doubts. The protestants are likely to complain that it makes complicated matters entirely too simple and leaves the student in too contented a frame of mind at the end of the recitation. As a treatise on economics, the work can best be described as a variant towards the position of Davenport of the scheme of economic theory associated most closely with the name of Fetter. It is a neo-classical system of economics, centred about the value problem, and concerned with "forces," manipulations, and equilibria. Little is presented that is not familiar to readers of the works of the "American psychological school." So far as the author departs from conventional statement it is to choose new terms or to make exposition simpler. For instance, the attack upon the assumptions and logic of the "marginal utility theory" have been met by the substitution of the word "desirability" for "utility." The merit of the volume lies in making this system of economics familiar to the lay reader. Although this is the first general treatise on economics which has appeared since the war, one searches its pages in vain to find any real influence of the problems of that period or of this era of reconstruction upon the thought of the author. So far as its essentials go, it might just as well have appeared in 1913. Nor does this mean that the book contains principles of such eternal value that even the disturbance which the war has brought could do no violence to them. Its principles hardly touch its problems of reconstruction as those problems find expression in the programmes recently issued by the Garton Foundation, the British Labor Party, the Catholic War Council, and like bodies. The volume takes no account of the conception of economics as concerned with the structure of industry and the functions of agencies which make up the economic order, a conception familiar to all students of Hobson, Cooley, Veblen, and Mitchell. It seems a backward step from the clear-cut conception of social economics and the instrumental character of industry which has found recent expression in texts by Cannan and Clay and in L. C. Marshall's "Readings in Industrial Society." The author is right in insisting that the student of economics should get his "fundamentals" early; but he is in error in regarding the "fundamentals" of the bullion contro-

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versy of the time of Ricardo and those of the answer of the Austrians to the first crude statement of Marxian socialism as the essentials of current economic knowledge.

Before the influence of the war upon education is spent, some study concerned with the organization and problems of industrial society is likely to become incorporated in the curriculum of the grammar school. That it belongs there requires no extended argument. At the polls the enfranchised masses pass upon matters of our common welfare, and the enfranchised masses get no further than the grammar grades. That it can be given there also seems evident. To insist that it cannot be taught in the lower grades is like insisting that mathematics or music cannot be taught there because some aspects of music and mathematics are difficult. The problem of finding pertinent material and making it interesting and significant to school children is likely to engage many minds for many years before adequate instruction can be supplied. But the gravity of the need means that every encouragement should be given to sincere attempts to provide needed material. One of the most promising of recent approaches to the problem is "Industry and Trade," a volume prepared by Professors Bishop and Keller of Yale University (Ginn). It presents an account of the basis of national industry in material and human resources; descriptions of the agricultural, animal, and mineral industries of the United States; a survey of the development of manufacturing and of transportation in this country; and, finally, a cursory statement of some of the factors affecting industry, such as marketing, finance, and labor. The volume is devoted to industry rather than to business, and its primary concern is with technique. It is avowedly descriptive, though some historical material has been introduced. Its aggregation of details means that its primary requirement upon the student is memory rather than analysis or argument. Yet, incidentally, it gives him at least a glimpse of the structure of the industrial system about him. It has little to say of the structure of industrial society, of the institutions which make it up, or of the functions which they perform. In this respect it is in striking contrast to the "Lessons in Community and National Life" recently issued by the United States Department of Education under the direction of Professors Judd and Marshall. That was an attempt to come at a grammar school course from the standpoint of the newer economics. This is an approach by merely abstracting and expanding the material on industry found in the traditional text in geography. As such it has the merit of definiteness and makes no radical break with the school curriculum.

THE evidence of an increase in our interest in problems of college teaching continues to grow. Significant of this tendency is a recent volume upon "The Teaching of Economics in Harvard University" (Harvard University Press), which contains "a report presented by the division of education at the request of the department of economics." It is indicative of a new spirit in education that the department of education was willing to undertake the investigation, and that a department of economics requested such an investigation of its own work by an outside authority. About ten years ago the first conference on the teaching of economics was called by the University of Chicago. At that time college instructors very generally affected to despise good teaching. Men outside of economics and some within the craft scoffed at the economists for getting interested in "pedagogy." Yet the conference met with hearty favor and its proceedings in published form exercised a great deal of influence in establishing better standards for the teaching of economics. Since then interest in problems of teaching has grown within the craft. The Harvard Report is valuable because it translates this problem of college teaching into tangible terms. It is a record of a thorough investigation into the aims of the teaching of economics, its relations to other subjects, the arrangement of its courses, the methods employed in teaching it, and the standards used to determine the success of the instruction. The investigators studied the literature on the teaching of economics, interviewed instructors and students, inspected class-room work, and examined the written work handed in by the pupils. The report indicates that in terms of conventional standards the work in economics at Harvard is very well done. Yet it is evident that it falls short of an adequate performance. The conclusions of the investigators are naturally most definite upon pedagogical questions which relate to organization or mechanical methods. They are least conclusive upon the most important questions, as, for instance, that of the functions of economics in the curriculum. On the whole they indicate that college teaching has not yet been established upon an adequate scientific basis, and that the current process runs largely by rule of thumb. This is true of most college teaching, and college teachers everywhere need to unite to break up this muddled old tradition.

"THE Government of Modern States" (Century) by W. F. Willoughby is an attempt, the author tells us, to meet the need of those students who wish to consider the basic principles of government and to deal with them without struggling through the miscellaneous descriptive matter with which most texts are cumbered. "The great end sought is to get clearly before the student the nature and terms of the problem that is presented to all peoples in seeking to organize themselves as States and devise machineries of government through which they can effectively act as such. . . . The author has sought to put himself in the position of a constituent assembly, or constitutional convention, beginning its work with a clean slate and free to bring into existence that form of government which it believes to be best adapted to the needs of the population on whose behalf it is acting." With such a purpose, one which the author has served through large parts of his book remarkably well, it is a little surprising that so much space is given to what Mr. Bryce in his "Essay on the Nature of Sovereignty" called "that dusty desert of abstractions through which successive generations of political philosophers have thought it necessary to lead their disciples." It scarcely seems necessary in this generation to discuss the difference between autocracy and oligarchy as legalized systems. We still have invisible autocrats just as we still have other abuses of society, but we do not discuss them as if they were among the acceptable forms of modern government. The long chapter on The Nature of the State, with its theoretical analysis of quasi-sovereignty, the individual will, and other subjects about which the average man has and can have no opinion, fits into a book on metaphysics rather than into one in which a constitutional convention is envisaged. Chapter V is devoted to two types of democratic government; and the author strives to establish the thesis that democracy and representative government are antithetic to each other. This thesis scarcely seems consistent with the statement that England, the mother of parliaments, is the most democratic government in the world. It is doubtful whether a scholar has a right to take a well-known word like democracy, which to nine people out of ten means a government in which the people have the power, and twist it into an unusual meaning acceptable to only a small proportion of those who use the word. Democracy is antithetic to autocracy; not to representative government. At least, this is the sense in which the words are used in America to-day, and usage is the source of the definition of terms. However, despite the too theoretical character of this book, it will be used in college classes in the theory of government; and it would be difficult to find others which are more suited to the purposes of a teacher who needs a text to aid him in building up a system of political thought. There is a crying need for a practical book on the organization of government as a practical matter, which most assuredly it is.

EDUCATION

POINTS of attraction and relief along the highways of the much toured educational prairies are few enough to war-

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rant strong commendation. Professor Hartley Burr Alexander's "Letters to Teachers" (Open Court) may be both warmly and safely commended. They are not shoppy, perhaps for the reason that the author is a professor not of education but of philosophy. They have a broader background and a fairer perspective than seems to prevail among those who have forgotten that generations were educated and values assigned to human interests before chairs of education were established and pedagogy found an unoccupied pew which it glorified into the master-seat. Not that Professor Alexander is a reactionary pleading for the days that are past; not at all. He is a Nebraskan saturated with the newer outlook, convinced of the legitimacy of the modern claim. But he realizes that avoiding the errors of our too narrow predecessors will not meet the needs of our day or continue the real benefits of the days that are gone. The book is an admirable one for the library of small or large extent, for it is readable, simple, and direct; it has the democratic virtues which it aims to cultivate. Doubtless what elevates it above the upper middle class of respectable educational essays is not merely its philosophical foundation, but what is by no means common even among philosophers, by its æsthetic reënforcement. Professor Alexander is a man of taste who believes in taste as an element of education and an acquaintance with the spirit and the message of the arts as an indispensable trait of an educated man. The inclusion of "Pageantry" among the subjects of discussion indicates real aptitude for the art of education. The schoolyard, vocational education, school architecture, the curriculum, the foreign language question, the humanities, the life of the teacher, the meaning of the war for education: the letters are broad in scope and frankly journalistic in the best sense. The opinions are balanced and free from vagueness. They arouse sympathy and thoughtfulness and thus their appeal is at once acceptable and forceful. They bring to the reader the sense of the larger interests and their continuity through the ages, which make the meaning of education. They offset the present danger of preparing for immediate bread-winning without regard to the supreme fact that the human mind is but once young and educable and will live for all years on what education provides.

IN an address delivered in February, 1919, in the Sheldonian Theatre, Oxford, and now published as "The Place of the University in National Life" (Oxford University Press), the Right Hon. H. A. L. Fisher, President of the Board of Education, sounds the modern note that has awakened the ancient strongholds of educational England. The alarum preceded the war, but aroused slight response. The "Extension" movement of Oxford, though important and worthy, had not basis enough adequately to meet the needs of the hour. The needs that were met by the municipal foundations and the expansion of the technical training schools proved to be decisive. The ancient tradition that social classes should be separated and educational matters left to private endowment has given way to the recognition of state aid and control on the one hand, to the recognition of the freest opportunity for the well-endowed brains of the people at large on the other. Mr. Fisher's address conveys the spirit of this reconstruction in terms of commendable caution and appreciation of the older values that are associated with the names of Oxford and Cambridge.

ENGLISH

SCRIBNER'S "Modern Student's Library" is sufficiently broad in scope to admit books that require little or no annotation and other books that must be fully annotated to be acceptable to the modern student. The edition of "The Essays of Francis Bacon" belongs to the latter class. Professor Mary Augusta Scott has furnished a lengthy introduction and voluminous notes. In the case of a text that manifestly needs considerable commentary there is the greater necessity that the editor should reduce the body of notes to the minimum that cannot but be large. Professor Scott has apparently put no restraint upon her desire to annotate. Much of the commentary is excellently put together and is invaluable to the reader of the "Essays": the explanations of historical allusions, the parallel passages drawn from Bacon's other writings and from the writings of his contemporaries, the illustrations of obsolete words and constructions, and the notes upon Bacon's references to folk-lore, science, and the like. But nearly all readers could well spare the numerous parallels with Bacon's thought taken from later literature. Some of these parallels are amusing in a way that the editor doubtless did not intend. Bacon's belief that the fool who proclaims that there is no God is not himself thoroughly persuaded that there is none is not rendered more impressive by the subjoined extract from a letter from Tom Moore to Byron; nor is Bacon's remark that generals "in their hortatives put men in mind of their wives and children" made more clear by a quotation from Fitz-Greene Halleck. It was equally needless to attach to Bacon's reference to Prometheus the irrelevant information that W. M. Rossetti placed Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound" "at the summit of all later poetry." Professor Scott's introduction gives a well-ordered account of Bacon's life and examines the style, thought, sources, and subject-matter of the "Essays." All this is well-trodden ground, but Professor Scott re-surveys it with clarity and judiciousness. On the whole, and with proper caution against the dangers lurking in the notes, this edition, because of its moderate size, good print, low price, and careful, conscientious editing, deserves to be widely used in college courses that include the "Essays."

OF the many volumes of selections from the writings of John Ruskin we know of none better than the "Selections and Essays" edited by Professor F. W. Roe for the "Modern Student's Library." The introduction compresses within its narrow limits nearly all the essentials to an understanding of the text. We miss an entirely clear statement of the part that Ruskin's theory of beauty played in that development of his thought which led him eventually from art criticism to writings upon economic and social questions. The selections have been admirably made. Among the passages from "Modern Painters" we wish only that "The Mountain Gloom" had accompanied "The Mountain Glory." There might have been a somewhat fuller representation of Ruskin's literary criticism, taken, for example, from the eloquent and too little known "Fiction, Fair and Foul." And the lighter side of Ruskin's work might have been illustrated by passages from "The King of the Golden River." But an extraordinary number of the most important passages in Ruskin's writings have been brought together within this little volume, and it should meet with many readers in this centennial year of the great Victorian.

IN the "First Supplement" (Yale University Press) to his valuable "Manual of the Writings in Middle English" Professor Wells has corrected errors in the text and has added such new material as has since been written or made readily accessible. One purpose of the "Manual" was to offer a summary of all scholarly discussion concerning each important piece of writing in Middle English. The Supplement carries on this plan, adding in brief but accurate and unbiased statements the chief contentions of scholars published between September, 1915, and September, 1918. The value of such a work is at once apparent; in Middle English the various types of literature are related in the most surprising ways, and it is only after taking a broad view of the field that one can study any special portion with any degree of satisfaction. The summaries of Professor Wells are excellent aids to such a view. We are glad to notice that the author has added references to unprinted versions of Middle English pieces. Among the items that should have been noticed may be mentioned the following: (1) 'God, that al this myhtes may' is found in a later unprinted version in MS. Additional 5901 in the British Museum. (2) The various short poems in MS. 27 Emmanuel College, Cambridge, are omitted. These include the 'Ave Maria,' 'In Manus Tuas,' the 'Pater

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Noster,' and the familiar rhyme lamenting the three cares of life—that we must depart, yet know not when or whither. It begins 'Boe ware goe ih boe.' (3) The unprinted religious and secular lyrics in MS. 383/603 Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, should also be mentioned. The religious poems include a Christian carol beginning, 'Virgo rosa virginum' and another on Thomas à Becket beginning 'A, a, a, a, nunc gaudet ecclesia.' The secular lyrics are interesting because of their possible relation to non-extant popular poetry. 'Rybbe ne rele ne spynne y ne may'; 'Alas, alas, the wyle that euer y coude daunce'; and 'Byrd on brere y telle yt to' are the first lines of the three most important of these lyrics. The First Supplement is a valuable addition to an indispensable handbook on Middle English. In a field so varied and complicated it is only by gathering all the miscellaneous bits of knowledge together that we can hope to keep from wandering in a circle; our advance, here more than in modern studies, depends on our knowing all that is discovered. It is to be hoped that the First Supplement will be followed in due time by others.

STRAW from which the last grain of wheat was long since culled is picked over in Edwin Gordon Lawrence's "Sidelights on Shakespeare" (The Stratford Company). The title seems to promise illustrations of the plays from some new point of view, but we have instead discussions of Hamlet's sanity, of Shakespeare's indebtedness to the Bible, of the Baconian hypothesis, of the types of Shakespeare's characters, and of Shakespeare's revelation of himself in his plays. In an astonishingly naïve chapter on "The Disputed Plays," "Pericles," "Titus Andronicus," and "Timon of Athens" are peremptorily ruled out of the canon. "In the opinion of the author, these three plays were entirely written by other men." The author should turn to the opening of the fourth act of "Timon" and to Act III, Scene i of "Pericles" and then endeavor to revise his opinion. Mr. Lawrence reaches the conclusion held by all recognized authorities on Shakespeare with regard to the possibility of Bacon's authorship, but in his reasoning he evades the more plausible arguments of the Baconians and is apparently unaware of any later contributions to the discussion than Ignatius Donnelly's. He belongs to the old school of what Bernard Shaw once called "Shakespeare-fearing Englishmen," for he ascribes the dramatist's ability to portray character to an almost superhuman insight into the workings of Nature, and he has no conception of the theatrical and literary traditions that accomplished so much in the shaping of Shakespeare's characters. Though Mr. Lawrence refers repeatedly to both "the young student" and "the more mature student," it is difficult to determine for what class of readers his book is intended. With few positive errors, it contains absolutely nothing new, and nowhere is there a single observation that establishes the necessity to have published it at all.

MR. A. M. D. HUGHES'S edition of Carlyle's "Past and Present" (Oxford Press) is a model of editing. There is an admirable introduction—a really competent handling of the social and industrial background of the book and of its philosophic background as well. Not only are the facts of the industrial situation from 1785 to 1843 stated fully and clearly, but the main currents of thought—the ideas of Coleridge, Newman, Bentham, and Mill—are shown in their relation to Carlyle's own thinking. This last is a service to admirers of the book that we do not remember to have seen elsewhere performed. There is a careful analysis of Carlyle's attitude towards the radicalism and socialism of his day which should be of much interest to those modern socialists, and they are many, who regard him as a prophet of their Faith. Besides the introduction, there are almost a hundred pages of careful and informing notes; few books need annotation more. If the edition has a fault, it is that Mr. Hughes makes so little application of Carlyle's ideas to present-day problems, and this seems to us a pity in dealing with one of the most modern of books. But no doubt mature readers may be trusted to do it for themselves.

THE volume of "Russian Short Stories" which Mr. Harry C. Schweikert has edited for the Lake English Classics (Scott, Foresman) conveys the substance and spirit of Russian fictional art about as well as a single small volume can do it. Eleven writers are represented from Pushkin to Kuprin, and the remarkable kinship of soul in most of the stories is evidence either of a firmly settled literary convention or of the persistence of unflinching honesty and pity and humaneness as dominant traits in the great Russian novelists. We can imagine this book being used in college not only in connection with the history of the novel, but by the sociologist as a source book for illustrating Russian character and social motives. What we cannot imagine is its use in the schools for which it is professedly intended. The high-school student, though perhaps not he alone, brought up on the romantic situations and the artificial technique of the western story, is likely to be dazed by the remorseless realism and the sober, uncompromising artistic sense of the Russians, and he may find the characters, too, a baffling mystery. Unfortunately, the editor's introduction and preliminary notes afford no illumination in essentials to those who approach the stories unprepared.

MANY persons have come to consider the writing of short stories, if not a trade, then the most mechanical of fine arts; and courses in short-story writing have come into our colleges along with the other "vocational" studies which have recently invaded the curriculum. Blanche Colton Williams, author of "How to Study 'The Best Short Stories'" (Small, Maynard & Co.), numbers among her titles "Instructor in Short-Story Writing, Columbia University (Extension Teaching and Summer Session)"; and in the preface she says: "I not only believe that one can 'learn to write'; I know." By way of proof she names several of her former students, of one of whom she records: "Her stories have been running in *Scribner's* for some months; she worked only a year in my class at Columbia before producing finished narratives." It is with this professional, rather than a distinctly literary, interest that Miss Williams has produced her latest book, which is an analysis of the tales in the annual volumes of "Best Short Stories" compiled by Mr. Edward J. O'Brien since 1915. The discussion of many of the stories is introduced by a statement from the writer, who has been induced to tell the germ of the plot as it first came to his mind, and often to recount other details of composition. A few have gone farther and presented their favorite theories regarding the short story; thus, Mr. Sinclair Lewis contributes a long attack on "technique." None of these statements is of the value of Henry James's prefaces, yet any glimpse into a literary workship may be interesting. Miss Williams's own analyses of the stories are brief and sound. They follow no set form. They are sometimes stated succinctly, sometimes developed by a few suggestive questions. The volume, though most useful to the student who wishes to learn the tricks of his trade, contains some things of interest to the general reader of Mr. O'Brien's collections, and of value to the critical student of fiction. Unfortunately the author and the story-writers who tell of their own work take themselves with a seriousness that is very amusing.

TEACHERS of freshman composition should accord a grateful welcome to the manual on "Sentences and Thinking" by Professors Foerster and Steadman (Houghton Mifflin). "The authors of this little book," says the preface, "instead of seeking comprehensiveness, have sought absolute essentials; instead of following tradition blindly, have worked out a new approach to freshman rhetoric—the substance being old, of course, but the mode of presentation, it is hoped, fresh and attractive because it is philosophical in a simple way." The approach is indeed fresh, and at the same time eminently sensible and practical. The fundamental features in the composition of a sentence are presented with scientific precision and with a constant eye on the difficulties encountered by the average freshman. Questions of punctuation, grammar, and rhetoric appear in

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their natural relationship. The principles of sound sentence structure are treated under Subordination, Parallelism, Emphasis, and Economy—a more flexible scheme than the conventional rhetorical trinity. We do not know of any book that is as admirably suited as this to the requirements of the first few months of the college course. The definite purpose and unified motive conspicuous in Foerster and Steadman's manual are missing in Professor H. S. V. Jones's "Words and Sentences" (Holt). This book is eloquent of the gap between the ideal content of a course in writing and the preparedness of the students. In beginning with a section on the derivation of words and their development, and the discrimination of words of closely connected meanings, Professor Jones ascribes to the freshman or wishes to inspire in him a lively linguistic sense. But is this possible before the student has learned the elementary definitions of the parts of speech, to which the second half of the book is devoted? Aside from the more ambitious treatment of diction, the manual aims to cover the same ground as the familiar handbook, but it is distinguished by a greater wealth of exercises.

GREEK AND LATIN

THERE are changing fashions in text-books as well as in everything else. It may be said of Professor Harry E. Burton's school edition of "The First Six Books of Vergil's Aeneid" (Silver, Burdette) that it is very much abreast of the times in the stress placed upon simplicity of treatment and conciseness of presentation. Thus, we find an introduction which comprises only eleven and one-half pages treating of Vergil's life, works, and reputation, the story of the Trojan War and the adventures of Aeneas, manuscripts and bibliography, and the versification of the poem. The text of the first six books follows, the long vowels of Book I being marked. As ability on the part of the pupil to read Latin at sight is now, more than ever, being insisted upon, and as many teachers wish variety of reading material, the editor adds some thirty pages of verse from Latin poets, which include seven passages from the last six books of the Aeneid. The notes (pp. 213-296) are very brief and generally helpful. Relegated to an appendix (pp. 397-434) are some illustrative passages from various poets from Homer to Tennyson; these are meant primarily for the use of teachers. Of the thirty-four illustrations those which are taken from photographs of the actual places and from ancient works of art are well selected and good. Very many teachers will certainly not thank the editor for placing the notes at the back of the book instead of at the bottom of the page; they may, in fact, think him untrue, in this old-fashioned feature of his edition, to the avowed aim of saving time for the student and holding his interest. In general this brief edition of the first six books of the Aeneid promises to be useful, although, after all, it is the immortal poetry of the great Roman bard himself which makes the indelible impression upon the sensitive student, and in this it is the inspiring and well equipped teacher who must play the all-important rôle.

In "Everyday Greek" (University of Chicago Press) Professor Horace Addison Hoffman has presented in the brief compass of 107 pages much useful material which should be of value to a large class of students and their instructors. Even opponents of lengthy study of the classical languages urge the necessity of an elementary knowledge at least of Greek and Latin for the proper and intelligent understanding of the English language and scientific nomenclature. Medicine, in particular, bristles with terminology of Greek origin, and it is really pitiable, as Dean Vaughn of the school of medicine of the University of Michigan would testify, to observe the bewilderment and despair of the young medical student innocent of Greek and Latin as he tries vainly to understand and learn the technical terminology of his future profession. Sir William Osler says in his recently published address: "Men of science pay homage, as do no others, to the god of words whose magic power is nowhere so manifest as in the plastic language of Greece." He then quotes some humorous and true verses from *Punch:*

> Botany relies on Latin ever since Linnaeus' days,
> Biologic nomenclature draws on Greek in countless ways;
> While in medicine it is obvious you can never take your oath
> What an ailment means exactly if you haven't studied both.

Professor Hoffman's little manual will be of greatest service to students who have had a little Greek or to those who wish to review the elements as found in English, yet it will serve as an introduction for students studying privately. A brief discussion of the Alphabet, Parts of Speech, and Formation of Words is followed by a series of Word Groups for Study, and the presentation is concluded by a Vocabulary, an Index, and a Key to Derivation.

Students of the Classics will welcome "Latin Epigraphy" (Cambridge University Press) by that indefatigable British scholar, Sir John Edwin Sandys. The well-known author of "A History of Classical Scholarship" and editor of the very useful "Companion to Latin Studies" contributed to the latter work the chapter on Roman Inscriptions. In the book before us Dr. Sandys has expanded this brief chapter into a "short and inexpensive 'Introduction to the Study of Latin Inscriptions' which may be useful to classical students who are interested in Latin literature, but are not necessarily aiming at becoming specialists in Latin Epigraphy." Although England has given us an excellent "Introduction to Greek Epigraphy" by Roberts and Gardner, the present work is the first introductory manual of classical Latin Epigraphy to be published in that country. Previous works in this field have been those of Hübner, Cagnat, and Egbert. A novel feature in Dr. Sandys' manual is the opening survey of the principal references to, or quotations from, Latin inscriptions in classical authors. This is followed by chapters on Modern Collections of Latin Inscriptions, The Archaic Latin Alphabet and Earliest Inscriptions, Epitaphs, Dedicatory and Honorary Inscriptions, Inscriptions on Public Works and on Portable Objects, Documents, Language and Style, Restoration and Criticism. Six Appendices conclude the volume, which are devoted to Roman Names, Roman Officials, Roman Emperors, Six Historical Inscriptions, Sixty Abbreviated Inscriptions, and Abbreviations. Among the six historical inscriptions of especial interest is a new revision of the text of that very important imperial document by the hand of Augustus himself, "Res gestae divi Augusti," and the preamble of the Edict of Diocletian which attempted to fix a maximum price for provisions and a maximum rate of wages.

It is a regrettable fact that Plutarch, a favorite ancient author of our fathers, is largely unknown to the present generation. Recent excellent translations should be of great aid in rescuing him from this undeserved neglect. For example, Professor Perrin's versions of the "Lives" are now available in the Loeb series. In 1913 there appeared the first volume of "Selected Essays of Plutarch" (Clarendon Press) translated by Professor Tucker, containing the following compositions: On Bringing up a Boy, On the Student at Lectures, On Fawner and Friend, Advice to Married Couples, the Dinner Party of the Seven Sages, On Garrulousness, Concerning Busy-bodies, On Moral Ignorance in High Places, and On Old Men in Public Life. The second of this same series has just appeared, being a translation by A. O. Prickard of Essays in dialogue form (with one exception), comprising about one-eighth part of Plutarch's "Moralia." These essays are as follows: On the Genius of Socrates, Three Pythian Dialogues, On the Instances of Delay in Divine Punishment, From the Dialogue 'On the Soul,' On Superstition, On the Face which Appears on the Orb of the Moon. The usefulness of the translation is enhanced by the brief introductions to the several essays and an index.

HISTORY

NEVER was muse so versatile as Clio, nor lady so ready to take up with the fashions of every passing year. She

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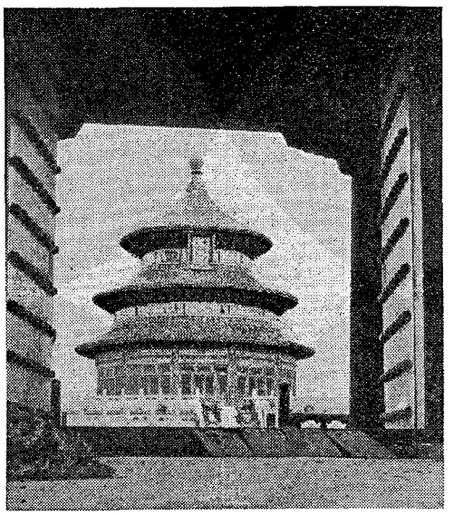

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clothes herself as an epic with Herodotus, changes to the dramatic with Thucydides, becomes oratorical with Livy, epigrammatic with Tacitus, and Voltairean with Gibbon. Nowadays she is "scientific" and journalistic. When that noble scapegrace, Sir Walter Raleigh, employed the leisure and privacy of a prison to write history, he could do no other than adopt the current Puritanical ideas, political and moral. The courtier so regardless of the expense of cloaks breathed the bracing air of liberty as he portrayed the story of ancient tyrants. The gentleman who had been so free both of action and opinion now found that "the end and scope of all history is to teach by example of times past such wisdom as may guide our desires and actions." His supreme aim in writing was to convey moral and political instruction in the style of the contemporary dramatists. If, as Augustine and Schiller have assured us, world history is indeed the world tribunal, Sir Walter, like his fellow-countryman, Lord Acton, was forward to take a place as judge on that exalted bench. But how the court repeatedly reverses its own verdicts may be entertainingly read in Professor Charles H. Firth's lecture on "Sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World" (reprinted from the Proceedings of the British Academy, vol. 8, by the Oxford University Press). The book was suppressed temporarily by James I for "being too saucy in censuring princes," was put to good use by Milton and Cromwell, and has since been alternately, but for diverse reasons, rejected and loved by each successive generation of readers.

FOUR monographs recently published throw considerable light into certain dusky corners of our national past. Miss Grace Gardner Griffin's "Writings on American History: 1916" (Yale University Press) needs no further comment—or praise—than the statement that she has here maintained the standard set by the previous volumes of her excellent annual survey. Mr. Don C. Seitz has reprinted from the "Complete Collection of State Tryals" of 1719 the spirited and amusing "Tryal of William Penn & William Mead for Causing a Tumult at the Sessions held at the Old Bailey in London the 1st, 3d, 4th, and 5th of September, 1670" (Marshall Jones) in a pleasant volume which contains besides the "Tryal" only a rather casual Foreword and a concluding note upon the Zenger trial of 1735, when Andrew Hamilton for the defence cited the important case of Penn and Mead. In "Letters of Thomas Jefferson concerning Philology and the Classics" (University of Virginia), Professor Thomas Fitzhugh imbeds the pertinent utterances of his hero (for Jefferson to him is very much a hero) in a glowing, often pompous commentary, which cannot, however, obscure the interest of the materials here assembled. Professor Fitzhugh thinks that Jefferson was a transcendent sage and scholar. What he shows is that Jefferson, most brilliant and versatile of amateurs of learning, concerned himself through an active life with philology and the classics, comforted himself with them in his old age, and repeatedly said shrewd, penetrating things about them and their high place in a democratic society. Professor Wilbur C. Abbott's "'Colonel' John Scott of Long Island" (Yale University Press) is of all these monographs the most engaging. In these exhaustive yet genial pages "Colonel" Scott, that graceless picaro, is followed through all the traceable turns of his extraordinary career as bound-boy to the husband of Cassandra Southwick in Massachusetts, untrustworthy real-estate trader in Long Island, sharper in England, profit-hunter at the court of Charles II, adventurer and liar-general again in New York, the West Indies, and Guiana, spy and informer during the tangled days of the Popish Plot, hired bravo of the Duke of Buckingham, aspirant (bigamously) to the hand of Lady Vane, murderer of a hackney coachman, and perjured witness against Samuel Pepys, whom Scott accused of being a Roman Catholic. Scott's astuteness failed him when he made such an enemy, for Pepys, with an eye to future vengeance, relentlessly collected all that could be found out about the bogus Colonel. "Probable nowhere in the world," says Mr. Abbott, "is there so complete a record of the activities of a private individual." These manuscripts, now made use of, have taken their revenge, and Scott stands clearly forth as one of the most unadulterated rascals in history. The style of the book is a little compact and crowded for fiction, but the impression it leaves when it has been read is that of a whole cycle of rogue romances epitomized.

MATHEMATICS

IN the revised edition of their "Solid Geometry" (Allyn and Bacon) Professors Slaught and Lennes have devoted more attention than has been their custom to the appearance of the page and to the preparation of a usable textbook. While a considerable amount of metrical work is given, the authors have recognized that the mission of demonstrative geometry is to introduce the student to the meaning of demonstration as applied to figures of three dimensions, and not to dwell unduly upon "real" problems of doubtful reality. The prerequisite propositions of plane geometry are conveniently listed, and the authorities needed in the proofs are referred to by number. The treatment of incommensurable magnitudes is to be commended, being based upon a set of assumptions that are adapted to the mental powers of the pupils. Some approach to the scientific treatment of this topic is given in an appendix. Four portraits of famous geometers are inserted, but the fact might well have been mentioned that two of the portraits are fanciful and that the dates relating to Thales are merely conjectural. The index is satisfactory as to the terms included, but the reference to sections instead of pages will probably be regretted by most users of the book. One of the most unsatisfactory features is the illustrations. Some of these are very poor, only a few display any attempt at perspective, most of the figures have no perspective at all, and at least one (page 59) has the vanishing point actually in front.

THE work by Ernest R. Breslich on "Correlated Mathematics for Junior Colleges" (University of Chicago Press) is one of several of a similar nature that have recently been prepared. These books are intended to meet a demand for a textbook that shall give to freshmen in college a general all-round view of the mathematics which may now require their attention. It is a healthy sign that the colleges are experimenting with a course designed to give such a preliminary survey as shall show the nature of mathematics as a whole, leaving students free to pursue thereafter one or more special branches as their tastes and needs may dictate. It is impossible to say at present whether the result will be generally fortunate, but doubtless in many cases the student will find such a course valuable. The danger of superficiality, of feeling that one knows analytic geometry, for example, after simply touching its surface, is always present in a course of this kind. We have so much superficiality at present in American education that this danger needs to be recognized during the experimental period. In this work Mr. Breslich has been more successful than he was in his attempts to "fuse" such distinctly different subjects as algebra and demonstrative geometry in his books for the high school. On the other hand he has been less successful in obtaining applied problems to illustrate the uses of the abstract work. In general it may be said that the author has elucidated the essential features of the traditional college algebra and of plane analytic geometry. As in the Slaught and Lennes geometry, the index references are to sections instead of pages, the reason for departing from a general world custom not being apparent.

THE "Unified Mathematics" (Heath) by Professors Karpinski, Benedict, and Calhoun is a more pretentious work than the one just mentioned. Mr. Breslich has provided an amount of material that can easily be covered in a year, while the "Unified Mathematics" will tax the ingenuity of most instructors who expect their classes to make the attempt. Mr. Breslich's work is surprisingly deficient in applications, while the "Unified Mathematics" contains a large number of prob-

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lems of the modern type. Mr. Breslich presupposes a knowledge of plane trigonometry, while the authors of this work give a fairly extended treatment of the subject. Mr. Breslich confines his attention chiefly to college algebra and plane analytic geometry, while the "Unified Mathematics" includes a study of commercial algebra, an introduction to solid analytic geometry, and some work on poles and polars. In spite of the amount of material given by Professor Karpinski and his associates, it may fairly be asked whether the best selection has been made. The trigonometry and the review of algebra must, under present conditions, be included, although not necessarily to the extent here given. There is also a good argument for giving an introduction to plane analytic geometry, for including such portions of advanced algebra as are needed in the subsequent work, and for giving a little information concerning the calculus. In such a survey the student can test his powers in the various lines of college mathematics; and if he drops this subject at the end of the year, he will have at least a fair knowledge of the significance of these several great branches of the science. It would therefore seem that the authors might better have given less attention to modern geometry, solid analytic geometry, and theoretical trigonometry, and have devoted a little space to elucidating the meaning of the calculus. The book has a good index, but the tables are poorly printed.

IF one were called upon to name the distinguishing feature of the "Applied Calculus" (Van Nostrand) by Professor Robert Gibbes Thomas, one would doubtless call attention to the valuable collection of practical problems which it contains. In this respect the work resembles Professor Perry's "Calculus for Engineers," the textbook published many years ago by Sir George Greenhill, and the German treatise by Professor Autenheimer. As the author himself admits, the distinguishing feature is not mathematical rigor. For the purposes for which this work is intended, however, the less rigorous treatment is legitimate, there being no more reason for failing to make use of intuition in the calculus than for neglecting to appreciate its value in other branches of mathematics. The pure mathematician will regret, for example, to see dx defined as a rate of change, although for practical purposes this definition is both teachable and usable. The book will stand or fall, therefore, on its success or failure as a practical class manual for students in applied mathematics. For this purpose the general range of the work is satisfactory. When an instructor considers the question of the use of the book by the student, however, he will find himself in doubt as to the adequate ratio of the exercise material to the explanatory matter. When the student has read the first forty-four pages of text he has encountered only two exercises, eighteen problems in all. In the entire work there are only forty-five exercises, and it is probable that instructors will generally regret that the problems were not distributed more freely throughout the book. The author has given most of the answers in connection with the respective problems instead of grouping them at the close of the work. This plan has certain advantages but it is not the one usually favored.

THE "Junior High School Mathematics" (Holt) by E. H. Taylor and Fiske Allen is one of several series that have recently appeared under this or a similar title. Books of this kind represent a new movement in American education, namely, an effort to abandon the traditional sequence of topics in elementary mathematics and to conform more closely to European models. There is little doubt that the work in arithmetic in the seventh and eighth school years has not given results commensurate with the time usually expended upon it, and when teachers can be found who are capable of following the European plan, it is reasonably certain that better results can be obtained by profiting by the experience of the older countries. The authors have already published a work intended for the seventh school year, and now, in the book under review, they have endeavored to supply the needs of the year following. In this they have been more successful than in their earlier attempt, their work giving the impression of a more definite purpose. They have wisely concentrated their attention upon the useful portions of algebra and upon the more important applications of business arithmetic. Whether they have done a good service by interpolating a certain amount of elementary intuitive geometry in the midst of their work on algebra is doubtful, particularly as this work may easily be adapted to the preceding grade, but such questions can best be answered after actual tests in a considerable number of schools.

ROMANCE

OF the making of first-year books in French there is no end, possibly because the first book is the only one which can be counted upon to yield the maker more than the cost of his paper and typing. Good French "Methods," however, are distinctly profitable, and always welcome when the student too finds his profit in the author's wise selection and arrangement of material. Such a book is the "Cours Pratique de Français pour Commençants" by Professor E. B. de Sauzé of the Cleveland schools (Winston). Written by a Frenchman who has had many years' experience with American pupils, this new French course combines the advantages of both the direct and the grammatical methods. The vocabulary is well-chosen, easy, and practical; it stimulates, by the use of cognates, the early assimilation of French as a real means of expression, and the pupil is at once made to feel that the language is really a living one. Grammar is but a means to an end—the end of practical use; and its essential points are not presented so fast as to preclude a complete oral mastery of them all. The books seems very well adapted to the junior and senior high schools for which it was probably written; but much of the material is too juvenile to interest in the same degree the average American college boy. The book's chief deficiency—for dull pupils at least—would appear to be the incomplete vocabulary. It must also be borne in mind that the direct method, even as here presented, should only be taught by a Frenchman, or an American able to speak very fluent French—an ideal condition certainly, but one practically unattainable in poorly paid high-school faculties. None the less this ideal condition must be realized if our American school children are ever to attain any mastery of foreign languages.

FROM a French publisher comes another "Méthode directe de Français, avec notation phonétique." In "France" by Madame and Monsieur Camerlynck (H. Didier), we have a book very attractive in format and arrangement, but adapted apparently to grammar-school rather than high-school pupils. Written entirely in French, and lacking a French-English vocabulary, the book is nevertheless so well illustrated that the intelligent pupil will probably require little help from his teachers. The text describes the life of a brother and sister in a French family, and takes the student through the ordinary events of the school year with the hero and heroine. Thus the vocabulary of daily life is naturally presented. There are frequent reviews, and, as in the "Cours Pratique," a good selection of children's songs and verses. But the best feature of this book is its use of the International Phonetic Alphabet. At the end of the volume is given a complete transcription of all the connected passages in the text of the lessons—an extremely valuable addition for the teaching of correct pronunciation.

PRACTICAL readers to supplement the direct method are nowadays much in evidence. The latest is "Aux Etats-Unis" by Adolphe de Monvert (Allyn and Bacon). This book is made up of a series of chapters on American cities and pictures of American life, from New York to the Yellowstone Park, from Niagara Falls to Texas and the Far West. Although made-to-order, these travel impressions, presented in dialogue form, are not lacking in value and interest, supplemented as they are by questionnaires and a vocabulary. The

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average teacher will probably prefer a book dealing with French rather than with American life, such as this author's first volume, "La Belle France."

OF French texts there are fewer this year than usual. A new edition of Mérimée's "Colomba," by Professor Victor François (Macmillan), is chiefly noteworthy for the French exercises based upon the text, to serve as a basis for conversation and composition. But why should we have four or five editions of this story, which, although a masterpiece, too often leaves behind it a notion of the vindictiveness of the French!

A SHORT translating dictionary is considered one of the necessary evils in language-study, and probably the compilers of such books are Machiavellian rather than conventional. The second (English-Italian) volume of "A Short Italian Dictionary" (Cambridge University Press) by Alfred Hoare has the usual characteristics, but with the advantage of pleasing and serviceable type and format. The book is intended primarily for English students of Italian. One would therefore expect full indications of the troublesome Italian tonic accent. They are lacking. Thus, in *chierico, socievole, comodo,* nothing tells us that the accent does not fall on the penultimate. On the other hand, in *montenegrino* the *i* has an acute accent, which appears superfluous. Another defect is the lack of adequate gender-indication. *Mano* is not specially pointed out as feminine, and *guardia,* a guardsman, is not distinguished as to grammatical gender from *papa,* the Pope, although *guardia* is feminine and *papa* masculine. The exact meanings of words are by no means uniformly given. Under *to season* we find *render acconcio, stagionare, abituare, acclimare; condire; agguerrire.* But we are left to guess—except for the dubious aid of a semi-colon—how best to season soup or lumber or a forward young man. Such exact information would perhaps make the book over-large, but some space might have been saved for it by the exclusion of colloquialisms like *soger,* for soldier, and certain shortenings of proper names.

SCIENCE

D. H. PEACOCK'S "Joseph Priestley" (Macmillan), the fourth booklet of the Men of Science division of the Pioneers of Progress Series, published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, is a very readable biographical sketch of the versatile minister, educator, and scientific experimenter who wrote such books as "Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion," "Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit," "History of Electricity," "Laws and Constitutions of England," "Lectures on Oratory and Criticism," and "Experiments on Air." Such titles suggest the field of the mental life of the man who regarded theology as his life work, but whose claim to fame is based upon the experiments on air in connection with which he discovered oxygen (1774) and many important chemical compounds. "The Realities of Modern Science" (Macmillan) by John Mills, though an interesting book for the general reader, is somewhat misnamed, because it deals only with physical science and especially with the recent developments known as physical chemistry. It will be a useful book for many whose ideas of physics and chemistry are largely based upon college courses of twenty years ago, and also for the general reader who does not have to begin by forgetting many things learned from textbooks written in the days when electron theories of the electrical composition of matter, the relations of electrons to energy and to matter, and other conceptions of recent physical science were either entirely unknown or only vaguely suggested. The "Source Book of Biological Nature Study" (University of Chicago Press) by E. R. Downing will be valuable for teachers of nature-study in the elementary schools. It is a natural-history account of selected common plants and animals which experience has shown are of interest to school children. It should be made available in every school where nature-study is taught.

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